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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

ROLE-SHAPING IN CONTEMPORARY COUPLES: TRADITION OR TRANSITION

by

DAVID B. LINGLEY

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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SPRING 1986

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled

Role-Sharing in Contemporary Couples Tradition or Transition submitted by

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Date April 4, 1986

I would like to dedicate this work

to two special women who taught me about role-sharing,

for Lynn and Jean, thank-you.

I. ABSTRACT

This study had three purposes. The first was to investigate the structure of role-sharing across both an instrumental and an expressive dimension. Although both these dimensions are considered to be salient to the structure of family roles, they are rarely considered together in investigations of role-sharing. The second purpose of this study was to examine the practice of role-sharing to determine how responsibilities for roles were being shared, and whether this division of labor had shifted towards a more equitable distribution between partners. Canadian attitudes towards role responsibilities have become more supportive of role-sharing over the last thirty years (Boyd, 1985) but has the practice of role-sharing followed this trend? The third purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between selected attitudinal, structural, and resource variables and role-sharing. Sex role, career role, and breadwinner role attitudes along with income difference, education level, age, and duration of the relationship were the variables chosen.

Strategic sampling procedures were employed to recruite 103 couples who were either married or living together and had at least one child living at home. Questionnaires from these couples provided the data for the study. Both partners rated the extent to which sharing was practiced in their relationship in nine domains. These included domestic, childcare, handyman, therapeutic, decision-making, sexual, and kinship. Three attitude scales as well as demographic information and data about financial practices were also obtained.

In keeping with the purposes of the study, the data were analysed in three stages, after the amount of agreement between partners responses was determined. Once the data were found to be reliable then, the structure of role-sharing was determined through the use of principle component analysis. Nine independent domains emerged from a combined analysis of the male role-sharing data and the female role-sharing data. Factor scores were constructed for each of the nine domains and these illustrated the extent of sharing being practiced in that particular domain. Frequency distributions of the amount of time and the percent each partner estimated that they contributed to childcare and housework were also

used to illustrate how role responsibilities were shared in these areas. These factor scores then became criterion variables in a series of forward stepwise multiple regression equations which used the relevant antecedents variables (as determined from simple correlations).

Role-sharing was found to be much more complex than previously thought, with nine independent domains emerging. This means that the pattern of sharing a couple establishes in one domain has little relationship to their practices in any other domain. This dynamic aspect of role-sharing has been frequently overlooked. Further, it was found that in most domains, women still shoulder the burden of responsibility for family work. However, in dual working couples the extent of this load is significantly less than in single breadwinner homes. Economic differences played a major role in influencing the way partners shared responsibilities. Generally it was found that as the monthly income difference increased in the male's favor the female's share of family work increased. This relationship was frequently enhanced by the traditionality of attitudes held by either partner, but education levels and age of partners contributed little to explaining this relationship further.

Because of the the sampling method, caution must be taken in generalizing these results to other couples. None the less, the results of this study do have useful implications for both the theorist and practicioner in the field of family relations.

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I would like to extend my thanks to the members of my committee for their contributions, and in particular want to thank my supervisor, Dr. R. Frender, for his involvement and committment throughout this study.

For my father, thank-you for your support and encouragement throughout this period. And, for Lynn and my friends, I too, am glad its over.

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I. CHAPTER I- INTRODUCTION

Marriage relationships have been conceptualized as involving a complementary sharing of responsibility by both partners (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976). This mutual exchange occurs over instrumental and expressive domains (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976). Implicit in this conceptualization is the belief that a shift in the role behavior of one partner should bring about a complementary shift in the behavior of the other partner.

How couples have integrated work roles with family roles has received considerable research interest over the last 25 years. One reason for this has been the increase in the number of married women who have entered the paid labor force during that time period (Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984). The 1976 U.S. Census Bureau found that approximately 45% of all married women with children and husbands were employed in some capacity, and in Canada this figure was closer to 50% by 1981 (Statistics Canada, 1981). The number of couples who are choosing to remain childless is also on the rise. Thus the traditional role norms are not as applicable today as they once were. Roles which once were automatically assumed by husbands and wives can now be open to adjustment, just as the marriage structure itself is undergoing changes.

In terms of the integration of work and family roles, for instance, it was thought that husbands' participation in family roles such as childcare and domestic tasks would increase in response to their wives' entrance into the paid labor-market, assuming that this entrance had occurred with the husband's support. Studies throughout the 1970's did not always find support for this hypothesis. Canadian trends regarding the segregation of household responsibilities and outside work performance between husbands and wives reflected the same patterns found in other industrialized countries (Armstrong and Armstrong, 1978). Frequently these studies found that women who entered the labor market ended up with dual careers, one outside the home in addition to one inside the home. These studies also illustrated that wives spent substantially more time in family work than their husbands (Walker & Woods, 1976). This was the case even when both spouses were

employed. Men spent very little time in family work unless the tasks were masculine in nature like making small repairs around the house or shovelling snow.

One explanation offered for this inequality was an external or structural constraint, the amount of time spent at work. The hypothesis proposed that men could not increase their family role behavior because they did not have enough time. This explanation was seriously questioned when time budget studies revealed that men generally had more free time than their wives when both parties were employed outside the home (Walker & Woods, 1976). Even in these cases women contributed a disproportionate amount of time to the family work.

Some theorists believed that this segregation of roles was due to a natural social order (Parsons and Bales, 1955), that the roles which men and women assumed in marriage were thought to be biologically and culturally determined. Others believed that couples assumed particular roles in their families because of the resources they could contribute (Blood & Wolfe, 1960), or because a particular pattern provided the couple with an equitable exchange of goods and services (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976). In reaction to these positions, Mydal and Klein (1968); argued that men's lack of response to their wive's "role overload" was a clear indication of the negative perception men had towards "women's work" and women in general. This behavior on the part of men was not an isolated phenomenon, but simply another symptom of the larger problem of inequality between the sexes. This group proposed that as long as men could keep women taxed with heavier domestic responsibilities when they worked, then there would be little likelihood that they would ever gain the resources needed to directly challenge the male power structure. Throughout the middle 1970's, research studies found some support for one or the other of these positions. Thus it appeared that either men *could not* increase their family role behavior or they simple *would not* increase it.

However, in the late 1970's and early 1980's, attention shifted to investigating couples who were trying different patterns in their relationships. A few studies described

relationships where fathers had taken on the major responsibility for parenting (DeFrain, 1979; Radin, 1980; Russell, 1982). Another study investigated couples who were practising role-sharing (Hass, 1977). What was significant about these studies was that they suggested that some couples had been able to negotiate and institute new patterns of sharing responsibilities without destroying the "family". Encouraging as these findings might have been, in her summary of the research on role-sharing, Haas (1977) concluded that "role sharing" per se was still an ideological premise in the minds of most family theorists. However even if full role sharing was not the norm, these studies also indicated that total segregation of roles was not the only option available to couples either.

It appears that men's and woman's gender-role attitudes have become more egalitarian over the last ten years (Boyd, 1985; Cherlen and Walters, 1981; Helmreich, Spence and Gibson, 1982). Attitudes have shifted away from the traditional norms of segregation of roles in relationships towards more sharing of some responsibilities (Araji, 1977). Role enactment has also shifted but at a slower rate than have attitudes (Araji, 1977; Nye et al, 1976). Thus discrepancies have been found between role norms and role behaviors (Araji, 1977).

Data on attitude shifts in Canadian's over the last 30 years indicates that there has been a decline in the preceived importance of the husband dominant role. This shift away from placing high value on this position of the male was most noticeable in younger, well educated individuals. Even though an attitude shift was found among this segment of the population, overall the division of labour in the houserhold remained quite traditional. That is to say that in 1958 7/10 married Canadians reported that the male occasionally helped out with the housework. By 1981 72% of married Canadians felt that husbands should contribute occasionally, and 8/10 married women reported receiving occasional or regular assistance from their mate. The frequency or quantity of assistance received has remained quite stable over the past thirty years however (Boyd, 1985). In 1958, approximately 56% of both sexes stated that the male partner contributed occasionally, and by 1981 these

percentages had actually decreased to approximately 46% . This could mean that in more relationships the males are helping out on a more regular basis, or that fewer women feel that their partners are even receiving a minimal amount of assistance.

Because some of these studies on role behavior are at least ten years old we can question whether the division of labor in the general population is as segregated as it was in the early 1970's and 1960's. Have couples moved closer to matching the ideal in role-sharing? Are some couples participating equally in the distribution of labor in their relationship as a result of the shift towards egalitarian attitudes?

A. SHARING IN THE INSTRUMENTAL AND EXPRESSIVE DOMAINS

Although most theorists have conceptualized the marital exchange process as occurring across the instrumental and expressive domains, researchers have tended to limit their focus to the exchange process that occurs between the work role outside the family and the instrumental roles in the family. In this study, the differentiation between instrumental and expressive domains described by the Scanzonis'(1976) was adopted. The instrumental domain includes the traditionally "task-oriented" roles, while the expressive domain refers to the more "person-oriented" domains. Naturally, both these domains contain "tasks" and on purpose of this study will be to examine the relationship between the tasks in these two domains. Studies of this type have consistently found that men's contributions to housework and childcare correlate very little with structural factors (Pleck, 1977); the data to date simply do not support a simple role reversal hypothesis. However factors like attitudes and resources have been found to contribute significantly to the division of labor couples establish (Farkas, 1979; Garland, 1972; Haas, 1981; Perucci et al., 1978). Also, partners may exchange resources other than household services. For instance a woman entering the work force may receive more emotional support from her partner than before (Atkinson and Bales, 1984). Other theorists have suggested that the bargaining power of emotional resources such as love or nurturance need to be considered if we are to

understand the exchange process more fully (Safilios-Rothschild, 1975). In my review of the literature, no study was found in which the expressive domain was included in the conceptualization of "role-sharing".

Investigators of the sharing process in relationships have operated from the assumption that couples who share the breadwinning function are most likely to share responsibilities in family roles (Haas, 1977; Hoffman, 1963). Their rationale for this assumption is that a woman who enters the paid labor market gains some measure of economic freedom from her spouse, which in turn affords her more input into decision making in the relationsip. Having more influence generally she can establish a more equitable division of household labor. A corollary which follows from this reasoning is that the pattern of sharing a couple establishes in one role should be congruent with the patterns they establishes in other family roles. As yet, this hypothesis has not been fully explored.

The study to be reported here explores sharing in both the expressive and instrumental domains. I also examined whether sharing in the expressive domain was correlated with sharing in the instrumental domains.

B. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK ROLES AND FAMILY ROLES

Several studies have found that for both sexes, time spent on family work covaries with the time spent on paid work (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Robinson, 1977; Walker & Woods, 1976). These studies have found that when the total amount of time spent in paid work and family work is examined, compared to their husbands, employed wives experience role overload. The extent of this overload has ranged from 1.3 to 2.7 hours per day. A lack of responsiveness by husbands to their wives' plight has been cited as the cause of this overload (see Pleck, 1982 for review of these studies).

Numerous reasons have been proposed to explain husbands' behavior including lack of available time, sex role socialization, sex role attitude, and imbalance of resources and

power. These potential explanations have be combined into a single hypothesis – the "paid work role" hypothesis by Pleck (1982). There are two versions of the paid work role hypothesis. The traditional formulation of this hypothesis holds that differences in participation patterns between husbands and wives results from differences in each spouse's resources and skills, and that this pattern of segregation is both appropriate and adaptive for couples. It follows from this hypothesis that men and women who are employed an equal number of hours, or bring in equal resources, should share equally in family work. It also follows that work hours and family hours should be equal for men and women, when employed hours are controlled for. Neither of these predictions have received consistent support. After reviewing the literature in the area Pleck (1982) concluded that "while men's levels of family work does vary in relation to their time in paid work, this variation occurs around a low baseline which is not accounted for by men's time in paid work" (1982, p. 4–4). Although the time in paid work certainly limits the time either spouse can devote to family work it would be misleading to assume that men's work role is the primary determinant of their limited family roles as it appears to be for women. As long as there is strong ideological support for the traditional division of labor by sex then structural factors will only remain as secondary constraints; however if ideological support for the segregation of labor lessens, then these structural factors might emerge as primary constraints.

The radical formulation of the paid work role hypothesis holds that the demands of men's work role prevent them from exercising as large a family role as they would like to take (Pleck, 1982). Some theorists believe that the breadwinner trap locks the male into the provider role as a socially sanctioned way of providing for children (Gronseth, 1978). Gronseth (1978) contends that all societies decide at some point in time who is to be responsible for fulfilling this function. Thus men have become prisoners of a cultural norm. There has not been much support for this hypothesis either empirically or theoretically (Pleck, 1982).

Two structural buffers that could influence the relationship between the work and family role systems and that could effect the patterns couples establish in their relationships have been proposed (Pleck, 1977). The first buffer was labeled the sex-segregated market mechanism. The idea here is that men's labor market work and women's labor market work are kept independent of one another, so that repercussions from changes in women's work domain are not felt in the men's work domain. The second buffer Pleck labeled the "asymmetrically permeable boundaries between work and family roles" for men and women. Essentially this idea holds that it is permissible for family demands to intrude into women's work role, but not men's work role. It is generally accepted, in North America anyway, that a man's work can intrude upon his family time; in fact, the stereotype is that husbands are expected to manage their family responsibilities so that they do not interfere with their work role.

Although time at work does limit a husband's participation time with the family, his attitude towards his work can also affect his overall level of involvement in the family role. The relative salience of men's work and family roles has been examined in relation to marital satisfaction (Bailyn, 1971; Rapoport, Rapoport & Thiessen, 1974), but it has not been examined in relation to role-sharing. One noteworthy finding in these previous studies was that the husband's orientation had a stronger effect upon the couple's satisfaction than the wife's orientation. Also, husbands who were family oriented reported greater enjoyment of everyday activities, and in couples where the wife was employed, both spouses reported higher levels of marital satisfaction (Bailyn, 1971).

Recent research on the role overload issue suggests that a significant shift is occurring (Nickols and Metzen, 1978; Pleck, 1982; Vanik, 1974); these researchers have found that there has been an increase of up to 30% in husband's participation in family work. Taken together, the findings also show that the amount of time husbands and wives spend in family work is converging. All the reasons for this change are not clear. The decrease in wives' family work has occurred proportionately as much for housewives as for

employed wives and the increases in household technology which were thought to save time and labor have been shown to not to be the source of this change (Robinson, 1977, 1980). Pleck (1982) explains this shift is causing a realignment of subgroups:

> "the three groups that have both a paid work role and a family role (sole-earner husbands, dual earner husbands, and employed wives) clearly hold these two roles in relative different proportions. But the three groups appear to share in common a higher total work load than those who hold a role in only one domain (non-employed wives). None of these three groups, of course, appears to have an average total workload as high in absolute terms as that of employed wives in the mid-1960's.
>
> (1982, p. 3-12).

The relationship between work roles and family roles is not fully understood at this time. Based on the findings of previous research a number of questions can be raised. Is a man's attitude towards his work more powerful than a woman's in determining the division of domestic labor for that couple? Is there a general trend towards equal sharing of the workload, in couples in which both are employed full-time? Or are women still experiencing a significant role over-load regardless of their employment status? In order to answer these questions, the effects of career role salience and employment on sharing will be examined.

C. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study had three main purposes then. The first was to examine the structure of role-sharing by measuring sharing in both the instrumental and expressive domains. The second purpose was to examine the practice of role-sharing in a volunteer sample of couples and to determine what changes have taken place in the way couples are now sharing responsibilities. Are partners spending almost equal time in family roles, and if not, what factors appear to enhance or inhibit this process from occurring? Are there any

differences in the way responsibilities for roles are being enacted, that is do some roles appear to be easier to share equally in than other roles? Do women still carry the burden of responsibility on their shoulders or are men spending proportionately more time in the performance of routine tasks like cooking and cleaning than they were ten years ago? The third purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of selected variables on the practice of role-sharing. Sex role attitudes, work role salience, income differences, age, duration of the relationship, education level, and attitudes towards sharing the responsibility for breadwinning were measured because they might influence the sharing of family work.

D. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The interrelationship of family roles has rarely been investigated. Most studies have used some combination of tasks drawn from the more well-defined roles such as domestic, childcare, and handyman. Also in these studies tasks of an expressive nature were not included. This study was unique in its attempt to explore the relationship between the expressive roles and the instrumental roles.

To meet the needs of this study an instrument was devised to measure the practice of family role sharing. This instrument eventually might be of some value to other researchers. This study might also make a contribution to the Canadian picture through its methodology as well as purposes. Information about the practise of role-sharing was gathered from both partners, a procedure strongly recommended by previous researchers, but rarely done (Huston and Robins, 1982; Safilios-Rothschild, 1969). Thus this study will contribute to our knowledge of how couples perceive that the sharing of responsibilities for roles occurs in their relationships and may offer some useful data regarding the similarities and differences between partner's perceptions of events in their relationship. This may counteract the subjective bias researchers may encounter when interpreting data (Eichler, 1982).

This study also contributes to our knowledge of how couples share task responsibilities in the expressive dimension and contribute to our understanding of the impact which resources have upon the sharing which occurs in the expressive domain along with that which occurs in the instrumental domain. And finally, this study will make a unique contribution by providing information about the practice of role-sharing in Canadian couples.

E. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

This study is presented in eight chapters. Chapter two discusses the theoretical perspective and reviews literature on role structures and role behaviors in order to synthesize the existing knowledge in these areas. The specific questions which guided this investigation are presented at the end of that chapter. The methodology used in this study is described in chapter three. Chapter four presents the results of the reliability and validity studies of the couples' role sharing data. Chapter five presents the results of the investigation into the structure of role sharing. Chapter six discusses the findings on the practice of role sharing and chapter seven examines the the correlates of role sharing. Each of these three chapters contains a discussion of the data analysis procedures employed along with the findings from those procedures. Chapter eight concludes this study. In this chapter I restate the major questions which this study sought to answer and discuss the findings obtained and the theoretical implications and the practical implications of these findings. Major conclusions are also drawn and suggestions of potential directions for future investigations are offered.

II. CHAPTER II - FAMILY ROLES AND ROLE-SHARING: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter I review the literature pertaining to the structure of family roles and examine how role-sharing has been conceptualized in the past. I then formulate research questions about the structure of role-sharing based on the findings from the literature reviewed. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section defines role constructs. The next section explores the major theoretical positions on family roles. Research on role norms and practices within the family anr then described. The fourth section discusses the antecedents of role-sharing. From this literature conclusions are then drawn and the major questions and hypothesis on the structure, practice, and antecedents of role-sharing that were investigated in my study are presented.

A. THE CONCEPT OF ROLES

Nye (1976) states that roles can be described from two different points of view - a structural/functional approach or an interactional approach. These two positions differ in terms of the aspects they emphasize and the type of social context they include in defining "role." Structuralists, like Linton (1945), describe role as being

> "the sum total of the cultural patterns associated with a particular status. This includes the attitudes, values, and behaviors ascribed by the society to any and all persons occupying the status." (p. 77, 1945)

Structuralists view the normative context associated with a particular position as critical to the role definition. For example, in North America, the term husband is automatically associated with particular behaviors such as wage-earning, or values such as "head of the household".

Interactionists, on the other hand, view roles as having an emergent quality which is influenced by the social interaction in which they occur. Turner (1970) describes a role as simply a pattern of behaviors which can be regarded as the consistent behavior of that actor at that time. Whereas the structuralists expect certain behaviors from persons

occupying specific positions, the interactionists infer positions based upon observable patterns of behavior. Thus, from an interactionist viewpoint, in a family discussion a mother may occupy many roles, that of harmonizer, placater, peace-maker, or dissenter. Time is a crucial factor in the interactionist framework, because the point in time at which the interaction is observed will directly affect the eventual conclusions one makes concerning role structure and behavior.

The context that best lends itself to using one or the other of these two frameworks also differentiates between the two viewpoints. Formal groups or organizations with clearly defined cultural norms or expectations regarding roles are most appropriate for the structural approach. Informal groups in which roles are vaguely defined and in which there is latitude and flexibility in role behavior are considered more appropriate for the interactionist approach. However, a family system embodies all these characteristics at some time. It lends itself to examination from either framework. Because my study was to be exploratory, I selected an integrated approach as being the most appropriate.

Nye's (1976) definition of a role as simply a set of cultural expectations of behaviors, attitudes, and values (1976, p. 7) was adopted for use in my study. When reference is made to the behavior performed by an individual who occupies a certain position or role, terms such as role enactment or role performance will be used.

B. THE STRUCTURE OF FAMILY ROLES

This section discusses the ways that family theorists have conceptualized how sharing occurs in families. Three alternative conceptions of sharing, role differentation, role interchandeability, and role-sharing will be compared.

1. ROLE DIFFERENTIATION

The earliest conceptualizations of the structure of family roles held that role differentiation rather than role-sharing was the norm. Role differentiation theory was

developed by Parsons & Bales (1955) and supported by the anthropological studies of Zelditch (1955). The theory held that two main domains were common to all family groups, an instrumental dimension and an expressive dimension. The instrumental dimension was occupied by men, who had the primary adaptive responsibility for the external sphere. Women occupied the expressive dimension and their primary function was to give love and nurturance (1955, p. 151). Zelditch believed that an instrumental and an expressive specialist were necessary in family groups and that these areas could not be assumed by the same person at the same time. Thus, the optimal structure for the family was first characterized by a total segregation of roles, and than supported by claims of an evolutionary foundation. Zelditch contended that women were biologically predisposed to nurture whereas men were oriented to interact with the system outside the family and to provide for the family's instrumental needs.

These early conceptions of family role structure proposed that strict role differentiation was the norm. The existence of universal sex-linked principles of role differentiation in the family has been questioned theoretically (Arnoff & Crano, 1975; Crano & Arnoff, 1978; Levenger, 1964; Slater, 1961) and challenged empirically (Arnoff & Crano, 1975; Bryson, Bryson, Licht & Licht, 1976; Crano & Arnoff, 1978; Levenger, 1964; Martin, Berry & Jacobs; 1975; Sharp, 1963); little support has been found for the original propositions. Walters reviewed the literature on family roles and concluded that "role differentiation appears to be more stereotypical in ad hoc groups than in families, and more clearly related to gender in ad hoc groups than in families" (1982, p. 845). Even so, current theorists retain ideas that the functions performed by family members can be organized along instrumental and expressive dimensions (Adams, 1983; Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981), and that the underlying structure of role-sharing within families revolves around exchandes made between these two domains (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981).

2. ROLE INTERCHANDEABILITY

In contrast to the Parsons & Bales (1955) role differentiation model of family functioning is the model of role interchandeability described by Scanzoni & Scanzoni (1976). In this model both spouses have equal rights and corresponding obligations in relation to family roles. The Scanzonis'(1976) view marriage as an exchande process:

> "Marriage exists when two or more persons maintain ongoing instrumental and expressive exchandes. The "expressive" or "person-oriented" dimension includes sexual gratification, but it may also include other elements such as companionship (someone to do things with, joint participation in leisure activities) and empathy (someone to listen and talk to, someone who understands and cares). The "instrumental" or "task-oriented" dimension of marriage includes economic behavior (earning and spending income) and the performance of necessary household tasks.
>
> (p. 110)

The rapid increase in the number of married women who have entered the paid labor force since 1950 has had repercussions on the structure and function of the family which Parsons & Bales had not anticipated when their original thesis was proposed. In fact, Parsons stated that "even if the average married woman had some kind of job, it seems most unlikely that either the roles would be reversed or that qualitative differentiation in these respects would be completely erased." (1955, p. 15).

The Scanzonis' (1976) have proposed that contemporary marriages can be categorized into four different patterns: "owner-property", "head-complement", "junior partner-senior partner", and "equal partner". Each pattern reflects differences in the rights and duties the partners display. In traditional relationships, for example, husbands had a duty to provide for the economic support of the family and in doing this they had a right to expect that wives would attend to the domestic needs. Wives' duty was to fulfill this domestic role in exchande for the right to receive financial support.

The first pattern, labelled the "owner-property" pattern, was more common during the early part of the 19th century. In the instrumental domain the husband's main obligation was to provide for his family's financial needs and the wife had a right to be provided for. A wife's duties at this time involved taking care of her husband's personal needs, bearing and raising his children, and obeying his decision in decision-making matters. In the expressive domain the exchande process was not as clearly defined. It appears that it was the wife's duty to submit to her husbands' sexual demands and the husband was expected to provide sexual benefits to his wife (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981). How mutual or satisfying this exchande process was, is questionable (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981).

The second pattern, labelled the "head-complement" pattern, does not exhibit dramatic shifts away from the "owner-property" pattern with respect to the expectations for women to fulfill the "wife-mother" role, and for men to fulfill the provider role. However, in this arrandement wives may work with their husband's approval and this shift gives them some right to make input into decisions, although the deciding vote rests with the husbands. This small gain in power by wives is viewed as causing an equally minor loss in power by husbands in terms of their right to be absolute rulers over their domain.

Some chandes are also noted in the expressive domain in these "head-complement" relationships. These relationships are based on norms which encourage spouses to be both friends and lovers, who form companionship marriages. Partners are expected to share in one another's problems, to confide in each other, and to participate in activities together. More emphasis is placed on reciprocal satisfaction in the sexual area and this area is characterized by a reciprocal right-duty norm (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981). This is the first clear cut example of the potential for both spouses to share in the duties involved in one role.

The third marriage pattern is labeled the "junior partner-senior partner pattern". It is similar to the "head-complement" pattern in many respects, but there is one major

exception with regards to the working status of the wife. Scanzoni (1981) suggests that whenever a wife enters the paid labor force her position relative to her husband's shifts from that of being a "complement" to him, to one of being a "junior partner" with him. She is no longer totally dependent upon her partner for income, and this financial independence brings with it more influence in decision-making. Nevertheless, in these relationships the primary responsibility for providing for the family's financial needs still rests with the husband in these relationships. The expectations regarding each partner's employment status are also different. The husband's career is given priority over the wife's and thought to be more important by both partners. Also, wives in these relationships have the freedom to move in and out of the work force, but most couples do not seriously entertain this idea for husbands. Some shifts are also evident with respect to the rights and duties wives experience in relation to the "wife-mother" role. Increased participation on the part of some husbands is noted in the domestic area. In the expressive domain the rights and duties are similar to the previous pattern, but Scanzoni (1981) suggests that in these relationships both partners now have a right to receive and a duty to give marital rewards in the form of sex, empathy, and companionship.

The fourth pattern proposed by the Scanzonis (1981) is called the"equal partner-equal partner" arrandement. These relationships have been described in the following ways:

1. There is role interchandeability with respect to the breadwinner and domestic roles and either spouse may fill a role or both may share both roles.

2. Both partners are equally committed to their careers and neither career automatically has priority.

3. Both partners have equal power in terms of decision-making.

4. There is not an automatic assumption of a wife-mother, husband-father role, as marriage does not require parenthood. In this marriage, both partners have a right to achieve as well as a right to receive financial support, a right to work and a right not to

work. In the ideal situation partners can fulfill individual aspirations unhindered by gender role stereotypes and traditional ideas about the division of labor (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981).

The assumption that contemporary marriages can be categorized into the latter three patterns was examined by Scanzoni (1980) using data gathered from a probability sample of young (ages 20 to 33) married women. One question assessed whether they felt that they shared a duty which was equal to that of their husbands to work. Based on their responses the sample was classified into the three marriage patterns he proposed. One finding was that husbands in the equal partner relationships shared more of the domestic tasks than did husbands in the other two patterns. But these husbands did not participate equally with their wives. No data were gathered with respect to the exchande process which went on in the expressive dimension. Thus equal role–sharing was not being practiced by any of the couples in this study.

Theoretically, role interchandeability offers a much more flexible approach towards understanding how families function than the framework proposed by Parsons & Bales (1955). Equal sharing could exist if partners can negotiate new role responsibilities. Viewing the ways that couples share responsibilities on a continuum from no sharing to full sharing may be more applicable to understanding contemporary couples. Role interchandeability does not necessarily imply equal sharing however, as noted in Scanzoni's (1980) study. Even though one group was classified as "equal partners" the husbands in these relationships did not share domestic role responsibilities equally with their wives. Because equal role sharing was really not evident in the equal partner couples Scanzoni examined, a major question is whether the phenomenon of equal role–sharing does exist. Literature on that subject will be reviewed next.

3. ROLE SHARING

The possibility of a family system which demonstrates egalitarian principles and behaviors has been discussed by various family theorists (Bailyn, 1977; Bernard, 1982; Young and Willmont, 1960).

Role sharing has been thought of in different ways, and the following terms have been used at one time or another to imply this kind of family pattern: symmetrical family, jointness of conjugal roles, egalitarian family, role-sharing, and equal-partner-equal partner arrandements (Bernard, 1973; Bott, 1971; Garland, 1972; Haas, 1977, Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976; Young & Willmont, 1973). The common thread in each of these conceptualizations is the idea that there is a mutual sharing of rights and duties by partners in both work roles and family roles. Who should participate in these two spheres is not determined by gender, nor is the activity of one partner automatically given priority over the other based on gender.

Haas (1977) provides the most thorough elaboration of what true role-sharing means, or ought to mean. First, husbands and wives both share the responsibility for providing for the family's income and both share the right to be provided for. Second, both partners have equal influence in decision-making. Third, the responsibility for domestic labor, including child care, handyman, and kinship obligations is mutually shared. There is general agreement that these domains will be shared by role-sharing couples but there is little evidence to support that claim, particularly if one examines all the studies which show that a simple role reversal pattern does not occur for most couples. It may be of interest to note that previous conceptualizations of role-sharing do not address any issues outside of the instrumental domain. The whole area of expressiveness in relationships and how or whether it should constitute an aspect of role-sharing has not been dealt with.

Do some couples practice role-sharing in contemporary society? Only one study to date has investigated this question thoroughly. Haas (1977) used stringent criteria to identify 31 couples in an exploratory study of the nature of role-sharing. Although all the couples

met the initial screening criteria (see Haas, 1977 for specific details) there were some variations in the ways this select group implemented these ideals in practice. On closer examination, Haas found that equal sharing was not being implemented over all dimensions by all her couples. Various factors were responsible for this, randing from chandes in job responsibilities to commencing work on a dissertation. Despite these variations in their basic patterns, all the couples defined themselves as role-sharers.

One of Haas's (1977) more interesting findings was that only a minority of couples in the study revealed a pattern of complete independence and self-sufficiency from their partner, while the majority of couples depended upon one another for aspects of breadwinning, decision-making, and domestic role-sharing. The interdependence model was most evident in the breadwinning aspect for these couples. The patterns in this area showed that spouses might equally share in the responsibility for this task, or one spouse could have sole responsibility, while the other exercised his or her right to pursue other areas. The majority of husbands and wives exhibited this pattern of interdependence in the other two areas also; only one couple in the sample practiced an independent model of role-sharing overall.

Another finding of note was the apparent discrepancy between attitudes and behavior. Wives were more likely to have been the ones to propose the idea of role-sharing, and yet Haas found that they had the most difficulty in putting this philosophy into practice. In the sample, women were reluctant to acknowledge that they had an equal commitment to fulfilling the breadwinner role and some discrepancy was also noted in their performance of masculine household tasks. Haas suggests that these differences could be due to a lack of skill, prior training, and lower confidence levels, rather than due to a desire to not want to share in responsibilities. Nonetheless, even among this select group, there were some difficulties implementing role-sharing.

Haas (1977) did not include an expressive dimension in her operationalization of role-sharing, and because so few of her couples had children, this domain was not

thoroughly studied. Thus the picture of role-sharing which was described, was incomplete by comparison with the ideal.

Due to the paucity of research studies on role-sharing many questions are still left unanswered. For instance, we are still not clear on the interrelationship of role-sharing in the expressive and instrumental domains, nor do we know much about how sharing occurs in the various roles. Also, family theorists emphasize the duality of family dimensions, yet researchers continue to exclude the expressive dimension from their investigations. No explanation is provided for this apparent oversight. The couples in Haas's (1977) study illustrate a critical point with respect to the practice of role-sharing as this group implemented sharing in different ways. Some did this through a 50/50 sharing of responsibilities, while others used a more flexible pattern which responded to situational demands and attitudinal factors.

4. SUMMARY

The purpose of the preceding literature review was to identify and clarify the structure of role-sharing. One conclusion which can be drawn fron this review is that there is little consensus as to how couples implement sharing in their relationships. Based on this, the following questions warranted further study.

First, what is the interrelationship of role-sharing in the various instrumental and expressive domains? In this review no research was found which explored this issue. Since Parsons & Bales (1955) initial conceptualization, no further research has addressed this issue directly as the focus of most studies has been on the division of labor which occurs within the instrumental domain.

The focus of this chapter now shifts to reviewing literature regarding the division of labor in roles in relationships. First, the issue of which roles constitute the family role system according to the findings of Nye et al (1976) are described. Research on role norms and role enactment are then discussed.

C. THE EXTENT OF SHARING IN FAMILY ROLES

Nye and associates (1976) investigated the role expectations of 210 couples randomly selected from a population of parents of elementary school children. Parallel questionnaires were mailed to both spouses. Data were gathered on the extent to which spouses felt roles should be shared and on role enactment. The intention of the study was to confirm the existence of a preselected group of roles based on the perceptions of a sample of the general population (Nye et al., 1976). Based on a review of the concept of roles in family literature eight roles were selected: provider, housekeeper, child care, child socialization, sexual, recreational, therapeutic and kinship.

The normative component of these roles was assessed by asking whose duty it was to enact particular tasks within that role. Response options randed from sole responsibility of one spouse, to equal responsibility, to sole responsibility of the other spouse. The researchers also assessed whether negative sanctions would be imposed upon an individual for non-performance of role behaviors. The rationale for this was explained as follows:

> Sanctions provide evidence that the society (or relevant segment of it) regards the role as sufficiently important and conformity to it as possible to most position occupants, so that conformity to the norms should and is enforced."
>
> (Nye et al., 1976, p. 17)

Sanctions were assessed by asking participants what actions would be taken against a nonperformer in the case of each traditional role (housekeeper, provider, child care and child socialization). In what Nye labeled the emerging roles (eg. sexual, therapeutic) as well as the less prominent roles (eg. recreational, kinship) disapproval was utilized as the measure of the sanction.

Normative expectations were clearly found for all roles except the recreational role. The researchers found that in spite of minor variations, there was a tendency for couples to feel that there should be some sharing of responsibilities in all roles. For example, one variation was that more responsibility was assigned to husbands for the provider role than

to wives and vice versa for wives with respect to the homemaker role. A large proportion of respondents felt that more equal sharing should occur in both these roles. Nye et al., (1977) also found that different degrees of sanctions would be applied based upon the sex of the non-participants in some roles. For non-performance of their responsibility in child care roles women would be more heavily penalized than men and vice versa for non-performance in the provider role.

Araji (1977) performed a similar study comparing role attitudes with role behaviors. Using data gathered randomly from over eleven hundred married individuals, Araji found that more women than men expressed attitudes of egalitarianism towards family role responsibility, but more women than men were responsible for enacting most of the duties in all roles except the provider role. Like Nye et al. (1977) Araji found strong normative support for the roles in her sample.

The following section will review literature on the enactment patterns of each of the roles identified by clear cut normative standards. Because no clear normative standard was found for the recreational role it will not be included in further sections.

D. PROVIDER ROLE

1. NORMS

The findings of both Nye et al. (1976) and Araji (1977) indicate that the provider role is no longer considered the exclusive responsibility of husbands. Araji (1977) reported that the modal attitude in her study was that of egalitarianism. However, Nye et al. (1976) found little evidence to support the existence of a norm prescribing responsibility for the provider role to women. The majority of individuals in Nye et al.'s (1976) study also indicated that they would probably impose some form of sanction against any able bodied husband who chose not to work, but would not take such action against a wife who chose not to work. It seems that both sexes viewed women as having a right to work, but viewed

men as still having the obligation to do so.

Different normative expectations have been noted by other researchers as well. Poloma & Garland (1971) noticed a difference in attitudes towards one's work by partners in a sample of dual career couples. Even when both partners were professionals both partners viewed the wife's career as less important than the husbands's. Poloma & Garland (1971) also found that so long as their husbands could provide for them adequately, women in these couples preferred not to have to work in the same manner as their husbands. The authors believed that this could be because the women in their study were either unwilling or unable to give up some of the vestiges of the traditional feminine role. A difference in attitude each sex exhibits towards their work has been noted by other researchers (Holstrom, 1973; Nicola, 1980; Scanzoni, 1976) and has lead to the assumption that women demonstrate less of a commitment to their careers than men.

Haas (1977) examined 31 couples who were attempting to share breadwinning responsibilities fully. Four stringent criteria were used to evaluate the amount of sharing of the breadwinner role. The first criterion was that the wife's employment be seen as desirable. All of the couples met this criteria although many of the husbands in the study did not view their own careers as desirable even though they did view their wife's career in that light. The second criterion was that the husband's and wife's work would have equal status. Haas found that many husbands said they would be willing to defer their working status if their wives were offered a job in another location. The third criterion was that each partner's employment be regarded as permanent and unlimited. Overall, Haas found that couples either viewed both partner's employment as permanent and obligatory, or regarded neither partner's employment situation that way. Over half the husbands in the sample reported their work to be less important to them than their wives reported their work to be to them. One variable mentioned by couples as interfering with their having a view of permanence in their employment was childrearing.

The criterion that Haas reported was most difficult for her couples to meet was the stipulation that both partners have an equal obligation to provide income for the family. Both partners frequently saw the wife's working as more optional than that of her husband's because of her involvement in childrearing, her level of interest or commitment to her career, and her husband's tolerance of this imbalance. Many couples mentioned that husbands felt more responsible for fulfilling the breadwinning role than wives did. Haas concluded that expecting women to feel as obligated as men to provide for the family's financial security might be too radical a shift away from tradition, even for her non-traditional couples.

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the preceding research. First, the traditional idea that the breadwinner role is the exclusive domain of husbands is held by a minority of couples. Although most couples expect some sharing to occur in this role, the amount of sharing varies considerably. The factors which influence this include – work status, income level, and attitude towards work. It has been most difficult for couples to view both partners as having an equal obligation towards participating in this role. If equality entails sharing not only the rights but also the obligations towards fulfilling the functions of the provider role, then very few couples appear to be practicing full role-sharing.

2. ENACTMENT OF PROVIDER ROLE

Researchers have found that husbands still carry much of the responsibility for providing for the family's income (Araji, 1977; Slocum & Nye, 1976). However, wage rates and occupational opportunities are not equivalent for men and women, so basing conclusions about sharing solely on the provision of economic support does not present a complete picture. We know that the majority of employed women are concentrated in lower paying, lower status occupations (Wilson, 1982), and historically this segregation has been perpetuated by men in order for them to keep their own wages inflated (Hartmann, 1976).

Women have always received less pay than their male counterparts for the same jobs and the differences in pay are evident whether one examines salaries or wages, full or part time work, or calculations based on hourly, weekly or annual rates (Wilson, 1982). In 1978, womens' salaries were 59% those of mens' (Townsen, 1980). These factors inherent in the work system make it almost impossible for couples in the real world to meet the ideal standard.

Haas (1981) and Scanzoni (1980) have explored the relationship between attitudes towards sharing breadwinning and the practice of sharing which occurs in this role. In her study Haas (1977) identified two distinct patterns her couples used in practicing sharing in the provider role. Couples either saw both partners work situation as permanent and obligatory or saw neither as having to make this type of commitment. Those couples who viewed their work as permanent exhibited a pattern of independent behavior. That is, sharing was achieved by each being responsible for contributing an equal share in this role. The majority of couples practiced an interdependent model, which allowed for differences in the way each spouse enacted his or her role responsibilities. For example, these couples could envision a situation where only one spouse would be working for pay while the other might be attending school, pursuing another activity, or raising children and yet they would still consider themselves to be implementing the principles of role-sharing. The difference between these two groups of couples appeared to be in their definition of or belief about equality and sharing, and how they chose to enact those ideas in their relationship.

Haas found that these couples exhibited the same kinds of differences when it came to finances. One group pooled their respective incomes and consulted each other regarding withdrawals; the other group managed their incomes quite separately. Both patterns appeared to work with equal success for the couples who used them. A third variable related to these interdependence versus independence patterns was how these couples proposed to resolve hypothetical job conflicts. Those couples who favored the

independence pattern proposed that they would choose to live apart if necessary so that each could maximize their career opportunities. The majority of couples who favored the interdependence mode suggested either following the one who received the job offer, or finding some other solution which might maximize outcomes for both partners. The main significance of these findings for future studies is that role-sharing couples may not be readily identifiable by their behavior patterns alone, but that attitudes towards sharing appear to be valid means of differentiating between patterns couples establish. It may not be valid to assume that one can apply an ideal definition of what behaviors constitute "equal sharing".

Following the same premise Scanzoni (1980) explored whether a comparison of the way wives and husbands rated their sense of obligation towards their work could distinguish between types of marriages. Scanzoni also questioned whether this variable might also distinguish between occupational commitment, material resources, degree of husband household task performance, fertility control, and sex-role preference. Responses from approximately six hundred wives between the ages of 22 and 33 were gathered in a regional probability sample. Of the total, 23% of the wives reported sharing the provider role duties equally with their husbands, 76% reported that this was mainly the husband's duty and 1% reported that it was mainly their duty. Some of the differences Scanzoni predicted were found. The women who saw themselves as having a duty equal to that of their husbands were more career oriented than the other women and also believed more strongly that their husbands would move to another location on their behalf. These women also possessed higher levels of material resources, controlled fertility more rigorously, and held less traditional sex role attitudes than did the other women. Differences in the expected directions over the five variables were also noticeable between the wives Scanzoni classified as "junior-partners" versus those he classified as "complements". Scanzoni also found that the husbands of the wives who defined themselves as sharing in the provider duties equally shared more domestic role duties than other husbands in the study. However,

their level of participation was still not equal to their wives. Scanzoni concluded that the original variable used to differentiate between marriage types, the degree of obligation one felt towards working, had some construct validity. One of the major drawbacks of this study was that the data were gathered only from wives which Scanzoni (1980) acknowledged .

In another study, Haas (1981) assessed whether one's attitude towards sharing breadwinning responsibility would affect sharing in the domestic realm with a sample of Swedish couples. Breadwinner responsibility was measured by averaging spouses' replies to the question "Who bears the greater responsibility for working for the family's economic support?" Response options randed from the man mostly, to equally shared, to the woman mostly. Over 33% of the sample reported equal sharing of the responsibility, and approximately 50% of the respondents said that it was mainly the man's responsibility. Haas (1981) found that one's attitude towards sharing the responsibility for breadwinning was a more important predictor of domestic sharing than was the woman's employment status. She concluded that as long as men are perceived as having the major responsibility for breadwinning, and women are not seen as having a duty to share in this role, then this imbalance in rights and obligations will act as a barrier to domestic role-sharing.

In summary, studies of how couples share the provider role have found that differences exist in the degree of responsibility men and women feel towards working. Generally, women do not feel as obligated as men feel towards providing economic support for their families. However, in couples where women see themselves as equally sharing in this responsibility with their husbands, then more sharing does occur in other family roles. However, even in these cases husbands do less work than their wives do.

E. DOMESTIC ROLE

1. NORMS

The domestic role has traditionally been considered the complementary female role to the male-oriented provider role. In the 19th century, it was a woman's duty to fulfill the needs of her husband and children. Husbands then were not expected to assist their wives in performing these tasks at all. The current exchande process which occurs within this role has undergone considerable chande since that time (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981).

The modal attitude of today's couple is that responsibility should be shared by both partners to some degree (Araji, 1977; Slocum & Nye, 1976). Although only 2% of the Slocum & Nye (1976) sample felt that the responsibility should be shared equally, over 70% of husbands and 55% of wives felt that both partners had some responsibility to participate in this role. These researchers also found that fairly strong negative sanctions would likely be imposed upon any woman who failed to carry out the tasks in this role; however, the authors did not enquire about sanctions against non-performance of men!

In addition to these findings data gathered from national U.S. opinion polls and surveys indicated that the overwhelming majority of the population believed that men should not do any more housework and childcare than they are currently performing (Harris, 1971; Hunt, 1976; Pleck, 1982; Robinson, 1977; Yankelovich, 1974). The size of this majority randes from 65 to 90% of the sample. Generally, most wives would like their husbands to increase their share in the domestic role more, but husbands tend to overestimate the amount of chande that their wives want (Pleck,1982) .

Thus, one explanation why men are so reluctant to increase their participation levels may be due to this misinterpretation. However, women may have a considerable psychological investment in maintaining their monopoly over this role and if their husbands were to participate more, then some women may be psychologically threatened (Pleck, 1982). Another possible explanation is that men are not really serious about any chandes

they make or propose to make towards increasing their participation in this role and are only paying lip service to equality (Rice, 1979). Also it should be kept in mind that in order for men to increase their participation in some areas they would need to develop some skills and the teaching of these skills, would most likely fall on the shoulders of the wife, thereby increasing her overall burden as opposed to decreasing it. For whatever the reasons one can conclude that the majority of the population is not in favor of men doing a lot more domestic work but they are in favor of men doing some work in the family besides breadwinning.

2. ENACTMENT

Three issues have been focused on in researching enactment in the domestic role: the amount of time each spouse spends in this role, who does what tasks and how often in relation to the other partner, and what factors or variables affect the status quo in this role.

Studies in the early 1970's repeatedly found that wives spent more time in the domestic role than their husbands did (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Meissner, Humphreys, Meir & Scheu, 1975; Walker & Wood, 1976). For employed wives the extent of their role overload randed from 1.3 to 2.7 hours per day (Meissner et al., 1971; Robinson, 1971). Employed wives spent an average of 4.8 hours a day in domestic work while their husbands spent only an average of 1.6 hours per day (Walker & Woods,1976). More recent studies have found that wife's time is decreasing while husbands' time is increasing (Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984; Pleck, 1979). Pleck & Rustad (1981) found that on the average employed wives were spending only 12 minutes more per day than their husbands were in comparisons of aggregate time for paid work plus family work. Given the normative feelings against men increasing their levels of participation, these findings are a surprise.

Most studies have found that wives perform more of the "feminine" or inside tasks, while men tend towards doing the "masculine" or outside tasks (Blood & Wolfe, 1960;

Lopata, 1971; Slocum & Nye, 1976; Stafford et al., 1977). The tasks most frequently shared are dishwashing and finances, while snow shovelling and maintenance tasks of child care were least often shared. Compared to the 1960's, couples are showing some increases in the numbers of tasks they are sharing (Stafford et al., 1977). More sharing could occur easily, but both sexes still appear to be quite inhibited when it comes to sharing cross-sexed tasks (Haas, 1977; Stafford et al., 1977). These findings may not be as applicable today, as they are approximately ten years old.

Haas (1977) described a number of factors that accounted for the division of labor her role-sharing couples practiced. These included skill, past training, strength required, perceptiveness, avoidance of heavy dirt and location of the task. Individuals tended to specialize in performing tasks that matched their physical capabilities and for which they had received some previous training. Men performed most of the heavy labor and outside work, whereas women specialized in inside work and avoided tasks which would bring them into contact with heavy dirt or grease. However, both partners reported devoting equal time to the tasks in this role and most reported that they also shared in the responsibility for performing these tasks, which is quite different from the expected pattern. Typically wives have more responsiblity for seeing that tasks are performed (Holmstrom, 1972; Pleck & Rustand, 1981).

In summary the literature indicates that the overall time difference husbands and wives show in the domestic role may be decreasing. Even so we can expect that wives still spend more time in this role than their husbands. Cross-sex sharing of tasks does not appear to be a common practice even among role-sharing couples. Satisfaction may vary with the amount of sharing which is occuring in the relationship. Men who share more than the norm may not be very satisfied with this state of affairs, although their wives may be quite satisfied with this situation.

F. CHILDCARE ROLE

There are many different ways to describe the type of activities parents engage in with respect to their children. Nye et al. (1976) discusses two distinct but overlapping roles – a childcare and a child socialization role. The first role is concerned with physical and psychological maintenance of the child and the second role focuses upon the social, emotional, and psychological development of the child. Some theorists divide the socialization role by sex of the child, based on the assumption that the child's gender will have a differential impact upon the parent-child interactions (Araji, 1972; Lynn, 1967). The differences which have been found in parents' interactions have not been significant (Araji, 1971; Grecos, 1976).

More recently, parental participation has been categorized by activities performed (Radin, 1978). This method has produced five areas of parental participation including involvement, responsibility taken for socialization, decision-making in relation to the child, availability, and physical care. In a review of the child care literature, Radin & Russell (1982) found that the majority of articles regarding participation or involvement have clustered around the issue of birth attendance, availability, participation in physical care and play activities with very young children. For their descriptions of parental patterns of participation most of these studies have used traditional families in which fathers are employed full time and mothers are at home. Radin and Russell, (1982) conclude that very few studies have examined non-traditional patterns of parental involvement.

1. NORMS

Grecos (1976) reports that different norms exist for the childcare and child socialization roles. Childcare was perceived as being predominantly a woman's responsibility, whereas over 90% of husbands and wives felt that the responsibility for child socialization should be equally shared by partners. Similar attitudes towards childcare were reported by Araji (1977). For child socialization equal responsibility was espoused for the socialization of

sons, but mothers were expected to shoulder more responsibility for the socialization of daughters. This feeling was held by more husbands than wives (Araji, 1977). Wives were more oriented towards equal sharing.

Grecos (1976) assessed the issue of sanctions for non-performance, but only for wives. Strong sanctions would be forthcoming for non-performance of childcare responsibilities and slightly weaker sanctions would be forthcoming for non-performance in the socialization role. The qualitative differences between these two levels of threatened sanctions prompted Grecos to suggest that society places a higher value on child care than on child socialization. It does seem odd, however, that if this role is highly valued that husbands are not viewed as having any duty to participate in it!

2. ENACTMENT

The modal pattern of participation in both child care and child socialization roles is that compared to mothers, fathers have only a very minor committment in the day-to-day responsibilities and tasks in these roles (Grecos, 1976; Moreland & Schwebel, 1981; Russell & Radin, 1981). Wives may be even more heavily responsible than the norms suggest (Grecos, 1976). Time budget studies on American and Australian samples indicate that the father's involvement in child care activities randes from betwen 1.6 and 2.9 hours per day. The time for women who are employed was approximately 4.7 hours per day and full time mothers spend approximately 8.1 hours per day (Pleck, 1979; Russell, 1978; Walker & Woods, 1970). It has been estimated that full time mothers do over 85% of the childcare. In an Australian sample, the proportions were even more segrated, with employed wives carrying 89% of the responsibility (Russell, 1982). Russell (1982) found that if parents were to share equally in the performance of childcare tasks during the time they were both at home, the father's contribution to the total time would amount to over 35%, rather than the current 11%.

Parents do not engage in the same kinds of activities with their children. It has been reported that fathers engage more in discipline than maintenance tasks (Stafford et al., 1977), and spend more time engaging in instrumental caretaking tasks such as watching television with children than they do performing nurturant, expressive activities (Moreland & Schwebel, 1981). It has been suggested that men will not engage in behaviors which they feel to be incongruous with their gender role socialization (Fern, 1978; Henderson, 1980). No consistent relationship has been found between parental participation and sex role identity (De Frain, 1979; Lamb, Fodi, Hwand, Fodi & Steinberg, 1982; Radin, 1982; Russell, 1982).

Fathers spend more time playing with their children than they do engaging in any other type of activity. The average father devotes about 9 hours per week to this kind of interaction (Kotelchuk, 1976; Russell, 1982). On the other hand, mothers are reported to spend approximately 14 to 20 hours a week in play with their children (Kotelchuk, 1976). Fathers tend to engage in physical rough and tumble types of play, while mothers more frequently engage in toy-oriented, creative type play (Lamb, 1976; Russell, 1979). Mothers are also more likely than fathers to read to their children (Jackson, 1980; Russell, 1982).

Only recently have researchers begun to investigate the degree of responsibility taken for a child, separately from the amount of time one spends doing child care (Kotelchuk, 1976). Sole responsibility was defined as being a period of time when one parent was alone with the child and the other parent was not available to assist in the parenting. Russell (1982) found that over 90% of his sample indicated that mothers had the major responsibility for childcare and that 80% of the fathers did not take sole responsibility for their children on a regular weekly basis. As well, over 60% of the fathers in the sample revealed that they did not ever take sole responsibility for their children. Despite attitudes which endorse the sharing of duties, and the importance of child care and child socialization, there is little equality when it comes to participation by both partners in this whole area.

In summary parental involvement with children has been catagorized in a number of ways, most recently by the activities being performed during the parent-child interaction. There does not appear to be consistency among theorists as to the dimensions to this role. As with the domestic role, males may spend more time with their children if the interaction is masculine in nature. Women do not appear to suffer under the complementary constraint.

In terms of satisfaction and participation levels Lein et al., (1974) and Oakley, (1972) suggest that men may increase their level of participation in childcare rather than in the domestic role because they enjoy this involvement. This could mean that men will be more satisfied the more involved they are with their children.

G. KINSHIP ROLE

Kinship obligations have chanded sufficiently over the last few decades for some researchers to begin to question the existence of a kinship role in general (Bahr, 1976). It has been proposed that kinship obligations are not as important as other family roles to today's family and that the loose structures which do exist regarding role obligations exist mainly for emotional and sentimental reasons (Bahr, 1976; Farber, 1964). The economic and traditional reasons which once served to maintain close ties with kin may not hold for today's family as they become more isolated than previous generations from these kinship systems (Lee, 1980).

Bahr (1976) addressed two issues in regards to the kinship role. First, whether the majority of the sample would affirm the existence of duties and obligations towards kin and if they did, would sanctions be imposed for non-performance of these duties? Second, if norms exist then who is responsible for enacting the duties related to this role. The specific duties Bahr (1976) investigated involved considerations about financial help and maintaining contact and communication with kin. Over 75% of the sample affirmed that there was an obligation towards kin, and reported that mild feelings of disapproval would

be directed at an individual who did not fulfill these tasks. In the enactment of tasks in this role, differences were not found between men and women. This may be related to the fact that the modal attitude expressed by participants was one of shared responsibility (Araji, 1977; Bahr, 1976).

1. ENACTMENT

Bahr (1976) found that contrary to the norms of shared responsibility, wives were much more active than husbands in maintaining communication with both sets of relations. The finding that wives tend to be more active in maintaining contact and communication with both sets of kin in couples where contact does occur, has been noted by other family theorists (Lee, 1980). The opposite pattern was found for decisions regarding financial assistance. Interestingly, 17% of Bahr's (1976) sample reported having no contact with their kin at all. Thus, for most couples the norm appears to be that some sense of obligation exists with respect to interacting with kin. However, the enactment of these tasks appear to be more the responsibility of wives than husbands.

H. SEXUAL ROLE

Researchers have been attempting to understand the sexual behavior of men and women since the 1940's (Carlson, 1976). The Kinsey Report, (1948, 1953), as well as the works of Masters and Johnson, (1970) have brought the subject of human sexual behavior out of the bedrooms and into the bookstores. Numerous manuals on techniques for enhancing sexual pleasure are available, and becoming more so with time. One limitation to all this new information is that it lacks a conceptual framework which can be used to develop a "theoretical orientation to marital sexuality" (Carlson, 1976, p. 101). These previous studies do not explore or attempt to assess role prescriptions and proscriptions towards spouse's behavior in the context of a relationship. Role obligations have been assumed by some theorists, but have not been clearly demonstrated to exist (Carlson, 1976). Some researchers

have commented upon the traditional notions towards sexuality which subjects in their studies have expressed (Hunt, 1974; Komarovsky, 1962; Rainwater, 1965), but these attitudes have not been pursued to determine whether they represent role norms or not.

Carlson (1976) found no clear consensus among his sample as to who should be responsible for initiating sexual activity. Approximately 45% of the husbands and 26% of the wives in the sample felt that both partners had an equal responsibility for initiating. However, another 44% of husbands and 50% of wives felt that the male has the primary obligation in this area. The remaining 30% of the wives felt that neither spouse should have to feel responsible for initiating.

Husbands registered more disapproving attitudes than did wives for refusal to consent to sex. Men tended to show more disapproval towards a husband who refused to engage in sexual behavior than they showed towards a wife who refused. Over 80% of both sexes indicated strong disapproval of extramarital sex under any circumstances. Carlson's findings suggest that fairly conservative normative standards are the rule for most married couples. Men are expected to initiate and frowned upon when they refuse, while women are neither encouraged not expected to initiate. Carlson believed that because so many wives did not view the sexual behavior as carrying with it any duty this meant that sex was less important to them than it was for their husbands. I believe this interpretation reflects more of a sexist assumption on the part of the researcher towards women's sexuality as there is no direct evidence to support this assumption.

1. ENACTMENT

Carlson (1976) found that role enactment followed quite congruently from role norms. Over 80% of the couples indicated that husbands did initiate sexual behavior more than their wives, and husbands were more likely than wives to engage in sexual activity when it was desired by their partners. Differences in enjoyment derived from the activity may influence these figures as only 34% of the wives reported always enjoying sex, but

68% of their husbands always enjoyed the activity. Only 10% of husbands in the study reported that they would not respond to advances, while over 30% of the wives said they would not respond. Interestingly, the question regarding enjoyment levels was only asked of wives, so there could be some unreliability in these reports.

Some researchers have found that women tend to accurately report on the frequency of intercourse (Udy & Morris, 1976). However, others have found that when an individual desires more intercourse then they are experiencing, then they tend to understate the actual frequency of occurrence.(Clark & Wallin, 1964; Hunt, 1974; Kinsey, 1953). The researchers did find that 37% of the males reported desiring sex much more frequently than their wives desired sex, and 13% of husbands and 20% of the wives reported that there was no difference between their desired level and their current level of frequency of intercourse. Thus, over 75% of the couples in this study are either experiencing more sexual intercourse than they want, or less than they desire. Clear trends as to whether there are any sex differences here cannot be determined from Carlson's (1976) data, as parallel questions were not asked of both partners in much of this section. Given these contradictory findings it is difficult to know what conclusions to draw from Carlson (1976) and Nye et al.'s (1976) work.

Our knowledge about role behavior in this area still is scarce and of questionable validity. This is a role which does require some give and take on the part of both spouses, although males appear to take the more active part. This may be reflected more in the instrumental behaviors within this role, but because traditionally women have been seen as the caregivers and nurturers in relationships then this stereotype may be reflected in the communicative aspects of this role.

I. THERAPEUTIC ROLE

Nye et al. (1976) viewed the therapeutic role as emerging and becoming incorporated into the role structure of the family. The role has both similarities and differences to Zelditch's (1955) conception of the expressive role, and Levenger's (1964) socio-emotional role. A major difference between the therapeutic role and the expressive role of Zelditch is the fact that the latter was seen as expressing only positive, supportive feelings and avoiding conflict situations. The therapeutic role as proposed by Nye et al. includes the expression of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the partners' behavior, as well as having a problem solving focus to it. The therapeutic role proposed by Nye et al. (1976) differs from the social-emotional role in that it is more problem focused and less inclusive of all aspects of social-emotional interactions. Zelditch (1955) proposed that husbands and children had a constant need to be fulfilled by the expressive role leader's actions, however, Nye et al. (1976) and Levenger (1964) believe that this role is only enacted in response to a felt or expressed need. Nye et al. (1976) agree with Levenger's (1964) contention that a separate expressive and instrumental role leader need not exist within the family as both partners conceivably could share in the enactment of this role. Levenger (1964) points out that this role is interactional in nature, so it is impossible for it to be truly enacted by only one spouse. Every interaction, by its very nature, is reciprocal.

1. NORMS

Nye et al. (1976) found that over 60% of the men and women in their sample affirmed the fact that their own sex had a duty to enact this role, and furthermore, 66% said that they would strongly disapprove of a member of their sex who refused to perform this duty in their relationship. Almost equal members of both sexes indicated that they would strongly disapprove of a spouse disclosing personal information to an outsider. This disapproval may serve to limit the freedom a partner has with respect to seeking outside help for individual and mental problems and contribute to the development of family

members.

2. ENACTMENT

The figures for enactment of this role within a relationship tend to be quite even between the sexes. Approximately 61% of the wives and 69% of the husbands saw the other spouse as having a duty to enact this role. Over 70% of both spouses did report that they frequently did share problems with their respective spouses; however, wives reported using friends and kin more often than husbands did to discuss issues.

Specific patterns of enactment by each sex were also different (Nye, 1976). Wives were found to be more likely to give reassurance, affection, and sympathy as adjuncts to problem solving techniques than men were. Men tended to offer suggstions or solutions much more than women. Nye (1976) concluded that husbands are failing to live up to the norms regarding enactment. This may acount for the fact that a higher proportion of wives were seeking outside help to deal with issues.

Because this role has been considered as emerging, its place in the overall structure of family roles is uncertain. This role may be a component of a more general verbal expressive dimension. It is also likely that sex differences in enactment may still be operating. Even though Nye's (1976) findings are approximately ten years old, I am doubtful that men's comfort and facility with being expressive has developed much over this time period. Men are generally less expressive than women, and they tend to approach problems from a solution generating framework.

J. DECISION MAKING

Substantial research has been done on the issues of power and decision-making in contemporary couples. The area has frequently been criticized as lacking in conceptual, methodological and theoretical sophistication (Adams, 1980; Macdonald, 1980; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). Little research has actually focused on studying these concepts

within the context of the family (Macdonald, 1980; Scanzoni, 1979). Because of this, along with the conceptual and methodological difficulties, it is difficult to draw useful conclusions which can be applied to the sharing of responsibility within a decision-making role.

Decision making has been examined in relation to role competence and role norms (Bahr, 1976), age differences (Albrecht, Bahr & Chadwick, 1979), and responsibility, enactment and authority (Nye, 1976). Bahr (1976) found that relative role competence and role norms were positively associated with marital control. Surprisingly, role norms generally had more impact on control than role competence did. Nye et al (1976) reported that the expected close relationshp between responsibility, role enactment and authority were not found. They did find. that wives generally had less authority than predicted by the norms and their enactment levels. Conversely, husbands had much more authority over decisions across all family roles than the researchers had anticipated.

Albecht et al. (1979) found that age was not an factor in decision-making outcomes in the housekeeper and kinship roles. In the provider role, a modest trend toward increased decision-making influence of wives was noted as respondents' age decreased. In the child care role, younger couples reported more equal sharing of decisions than older couples. As the age of the couple increased, more decision-making authority rested on wives shoulders.

Power and influence have also been treated as independent variables in studying decision-making in family roles. Some studies have found that the more power resources or decision-making influence a wife has in comparison to her husband, the more family roles are shared. Task allocation within roles was less traditional also (Erickson et 1979; Richmond, 1976; Stafford et al., 1977).

Couples who defined themselves as role sharers generally were found to have equal influence in both the process and the outcome of the decision making (Haas, 1977). This was the case even though few decisions were actually made jointly. Contrary to tradition, husbands in these couples were less responsible for the major decisions which affected these couples' lives and wives were not found to be more responsible for the minor

decisions. Each sex did show a tendency to dominate some decisions in roles which are regarded as being traditionally masculine or feminine. For example, in matters related to the purchase of insurance, savings and cars, husbands were more influential, whereas wives were more influential in home decorating, gift buying and household purchase decisions. Husbands still exercised more power overall as they dominated major decisions in the masculine areas, whereas wives only dominated the minor feminine decisions. Influence was equally shared by both spouses with regards to major "feminine" decisions. Haas (1977) suggests that this pattern could be due to wives actively pushing their husbands to become more involved in these areas so as to lessen the strain or workload these women face, rather than this being an attempt by husbands to maintain control in the relationship. Thus, sharing the responsibility is much easier for all parties involved. Shared decisions were found regarding the investment of savings, subscribing to newspapers, purchasing furniture, food and childrens' toys, along with deciding when children needed medical attention or what chores they should be responsible for (Haas, 1977). Some crossover in decision-making is apparent with these couples. In the general public, crossovers do not appear to be that frequent.

Should decision-making be considered a separate family role? Nye et al. (1976) did not treat it as such; instead they approached it as a component of each role. However, other researchers have viewed this area as if it were distinct (Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983; Haas, 1977). In this study this issue will be decided depending on whether this area emerges as an salient dimension or a component of a number of dimensions. The literature shows quite clearely that the balance of power is tipped in favour of the husband regarding decision-making. This occurs even in couples who are defined as being role-sharers, although for them the imbalance is less than what is found among traditional couples. In my study it is unlikely that role enactment will be shared, except in the case of decisions which can be considered traditionally feminine and of minor importance.

The preceding sections have described what we know about the ways couples enact contemporary family roles and work roles. The sharing patterns of average couples as well as role-sharing couples was described. Based on this information hypothesis will be suggested regarding the dimensions of role-sharing and the patterns of sharing which might emerge in my study. The focus of this review chapter now shifts to describing variables which are considered to be potential correlates of role-sharing.

K. THE ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE SHARING

In this section the relationship between the following antecedents and role-sharing will be discussed: sex role attitude, career role salience, economic variables, educational level, age, and the duration of the relationship. These variables have been identified through previous related research studies as influencing the practice of sharing in relationships.

1. SEX ROLE ATTITUDE

The underlying assumption for researchers who study the relationship between sex role attitude and division of family work has been that individuals who hold liberal or modern (i.e., non-traditional) attitudes towards sex roles will behave in non-traditional ways. Conversely, individuals with traditional attitudes will behave in a traditional fashion when it comes to the division of family roles. In relation to family work, a non-traditional pattern of behavior has been interpreted to mean anything from equal sharing of the labor, to more participation by husbands in tasks which they do not frequently do, to more crossover by both sexes into the other sexes' "traditional" domain, to role-sharing (Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984; Haas, 1977; Perrucci et al., 1978; Pleck, 1976; 1982; Stafford et al., 1977). Men with a traditional sex role attitude perform little family work because they do not view this as appropriate work for them. Women who possess a traditional sex role attitude show higher levels of domestic involvement than do women who possess more modern or liberal attitudes (Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984; Haas, 1977; Perrucci et al., 1978;

Pleck, 1976, 1982; Stafford et al., 1977).

Most studies of these relationship, regardless of measures and interpretations used, have found significant relationships as predicted (Bird, Bird &_Scruggs, 1984; Perrucci et al., 1978; Stafford et al., 1977). Occasionally, no such relationship has emerged (Hesselbart, 1976) or a significant relationship has been found for one sex but not the other (Bird et al., 1984; Beckman & Houser, 1979). Some of these studies have not included measures of child care in their analyses, or have only given this variable cursory treatment. Studies which have included measures of childcare have found that the same relationship between sex-role attitude and child care involvement exists (De Frain, 1979; Lamb et al., 1982 Radin, 1982; Russell,1982). There appears to be consensus that a relationship between sex role attitude and family work involvement does exist for both sexes, however the strength of this relationship is surprisingly small.

Pleck (1982) investigated the relative impact which work role, sex, and sex role attitude had upon the domestic sharing of employed husbands and employed wives. Three levels of analysis were performed. The first examined simple correlations between each predictor and the time in family work. The second analysis examined the conditioning effect of sex on paid work time and sex role attitude on family work time and family work. The third analysis examined the conditioning effects of sex and sex-role liberalism on the impact of paid work time on family work.

First Pleck (1982) found that paid work time and sex had strong significant effects on family work in the expected directions. Sex role liberalism was non-significant at this level. Sex was found to significantly condition the effects of paid work on childcare and on all family work, but not separately for domestic work and this effect was not in the expected directions. Increases in paid work time lead to greater reduction in family time for employed wives but not for husbands. Pleck (1982) hypothesized that because husbands' time in family work revolved around a low baseline this could explain this finding. Wives baseline was much greater. As expected, sex role liberalism had a positive effect on

husbands time in housework and a negative effect on wives time in housework.

Pleck also hypothesized that job hours would have a stronger negative impact on family time among those with liberal sex role attitudes than among those with conservative attitudes. This hypothesis was borne out in terms of housework, but a significant moderating effect in the opposite direction was found for childcare. A positive relationship (not statistically significant) was found between work hours and time spent in childcare for employed husbands with liberal sex role attitudes. Perhaps these men consciously try to maintain their involvement with their children despite increased demands from work. Among employed women work hours reduced all family work and housework significantly, but less so among those with liberal as compared to conservative sex role attitudes.

Pleck drew the following conclusions from his research. Liberal sex role attitudes had a moderating effect upon the family role behavior of employed husbands and wives as predicted. Variations in paid work had less impact on family time for husbands than for employed wives. For those individuals who possess liberal sex role attitudes, paid work had less of an impact upon their time in family work than work had for those individuals who possess conservative attitudes. Pleck suggests that sex role liberalism increases one's sensitivity to the relationship between family time and work time for employed husbands, but decreases this sensitivity for employed wives.

To summarize, the relationship between sex role attitude and role-sharing is a complex one given that it tends to interact with other factors such as work time and gender. Even so it is likely that sex role attitude will have a significant impact upon domestic role-sharing. The studies which have previously investigated this relationship have focused on the instrumental aspects of family roles and excluded the expressive roles, and frequently childcare has also been excluded. My study may shed some light on the relationship between sex role attitude and family role-sharing.

2. CAREER ROLE SALIENCE

Role salience refers to the relative importance or value an individual places on the enactment of various family, employment, or community roles (Bird et al., 1984; Slocum & Nye, 1976). Career role salience specifically refers to the degree to which work and having a career are a central part of the self-concept (Greenhaus, 1971). Career role salience is a measure of the importance work and a career are to an individual (Greenhaus, 1971; 1974; 1976). Individuals who show high levels of career salience place greater importance on work, and are seen as being highly motivated to fulfill themselves through their occupations rather than through family or community role involvement (Thomas & Bruning, 1981).

Persons who are involved in demanding careers find it difficult to separate work time from family time (Ridley, 1973; Kanter, 1977). It has been found that in dual-career marriages husbands who are more family than career oriented are more satisfied with their marriages (Bailyn, 1970; Rapoport, Rapoport & Thiessen, 1974). The only study to explore employment role salience and role-sharing found that employment role salience had no effect whatsoever upon family task sharing (Bird et al , 1984). Their sample did not vary much in income levels, a factor which these researchers felt could be related . Thus these researchers called for an investigation of the relationship between this variable and family task sharing with couples at various income levels.

Intuitively, the hypothesis that high career role salience leads to low role-sharing has some appeal. However, just as the relationship between sex role attitude and family task sharing is more complex than what one first assumes, this could also be the case for this relationship. However, in my study I hypothesized that high career salience will be associated with low role-sharing behavior.

3. RESOURCE HYPOTHESIS VARIABLES

Resource theory was introduced into the study of domestic role sharing by Blood and Wolfe (1960). Resource theory assumes that the roles family members participate in

vary because each member possesses different resources required to perform the roles. Blood and Wolfe developed and applied resource theory in an attempt to answer three questions. First, why do husbands and wives perform different tasks? Second, why do wives perform more tasks than husbands? Third, how would this division of labor chande in response to variations in husbands' and wife's employment statuses.

The original data gathered by Blood and Wolfe did not allow them to answer questions one and two. However, they did conclude that husbands of employed wives showed increased participation in domestic tasks when compared to husbands of non-employed wives. Criticism has been levelled at the methodology they employed to reach this conclusion becaused they assessed only the relative contributions of each spouse. The husbands of employed wives did not spend any more time participating in domestic tasks than did husbands of non-employed wives, however, because employed wives spent less time in domestic labor than non-employed wives, their husbands appeared to be doing a greater proportion of the work. There were no actual increase in the males' shares whatsoever.

Some studies have tested the hypothesis that the more power-type resources a woman commands in a relationship the more she will be able to persuade her mate to assume an equal share of the domestic chores (Berk & Berk, 1979; Haas, 1981; Perrucci, Potter & Rhoads, 1978). These researchers contend that in traditional marriages men possess more power resources than women. This inequality accounts for the imbalance in domestic role-sharing. The variables most frequently tested have been occupational status, economic level, and educational attainment. One study found significant correlations between these three variables and domestic role sharing, and they accounted for 13% of the variance in domestic task sharing (Haas, 1981). Occupational status was not explored in my study so I will not review the findings in this area.

The absolute education level of husbands has been found to correlate modestly with domestic task sharing (Farkas, 1976; Haas, 1981; Hesselbart, 1976; Nickols and Metzen,

1978). Researchers believe that more educated men hold more liberal ideas towards equality and this should lead to them contributing more to domestic task sharing. Wife's education has been found to be relatively unimportant in explaining variations in domestic role performance (Maret & Finlay, 1984; Nichols & Metzer, 1978). Generally the explanatory weight of this variable, in comparison to other resource variables tends to be quite low.

Economic variables contribute much more to explaning variations in task sharing than other resource variables. As a wife's income level approaches that of her husband's, more domestic task sharing occurs (Bird et al., 1984; Clark, Nye & Gicos, 1977; Haas, 1981; Nichols & Metzer, 1978). This relationship has been found when relative income levels between partners are examined (Maret & Finlay, 1984; Model, 1981). These researchers also found that as husband's income level increased, controlling for the wife's income and all other variables, then home responsibility of the wife also increased (Maret & Finlay, 1984). Similarly, as the wife's income level increased, controlling for her husbands income level plus all other variables, then her share of home responsibility decreased. Maret and Finlay (1984) suggest that research be conducted to explore the hypothesis that "the greater the similarity in earnings between spouses, the greater the sharing of domestic responsibilities." (1984, p. 362). This hypothesis will be explored in my study.

Based on the research findings to date, income difference as well as education level warrant further investigation. Both the education levels of husbands and wives will be examined for their individual and collective impact upon role sharing. Based on the suggestion of Maret & Finlay (1984), monthly income difference will be examined for its impact upon role-sharing.

4. AGE AND DURATION OF RELATIONSHIP

Age has frequently been proposed as an important predictor of the extent of domestic task sharing couples practice. Because younger couples have been exposed to the sex role debates for a greater proportion of their lives than older couples have researchers

have hypothesized that they should have less traditional expectations. Having less traditional expectations should lead to establishing less traditional patterns in their relationships (Haas ,1981; Maret & Finlay, 1984). Some researchers feel that task sharing becomes more traditional over time due to a generation effect (Albrecht et al., 1978).

Suprisingly then, the relationship between age and task sharing tends to be either low or non-existent in American samples (Beers, 1983; Hesselbart, 1976; Perrucci et al., 1979; Stafford et al., 1977). Finding little or no relationship is particularily the case when husband's age is used as a predictor variable alone (Perrucci et al., 1978; Stafford et al., 1977). More domestic task sharing was noted in younger couples in a Swedish sample (Haas, 1981). This may be due to the fact that Sweden has instituted a comprehensive educational program designed to reduce sexual inequality and younger couples have been exposed to these debates proportionately longer than elder couples have been. While attempts to increase public awareness have also been going on in North America they are not as comprehensive.

Also studied for its impact as a predictor has been the length of time a couple has been together. Labeled the honeymoon hypothesis, the assumption is that when couples first come together they want to spend more time together and therefore engage in more activities together, including domestic activities. With time, the honeymoon effect wears off and the couple establishes traditional patterns of behavior. The hypothesis predicts that the division of labor starts out being quite undifferentiated but becomes more sex typed with the passage of time. Haas (1981) found a significant relationship in the predicted direction in a Swedish sample. Couples that had been together for shorter periods of time did more domestic task sharing than other couples.

Family size may also contribute significantly to domestic task sharing. Haas (1981) found that family size was significantly related to both a general responsibility for home care as well as a domestic task sharing composite. The impact of chilren is not always clear. While Haas (1981) suggests that children may cause couples to institute more

traditional patterns of task sharing, other researchers have found that men's participation may increase in relation to the number of children (Farkas, 1976; Lein et al., 1974). This relationship occurs only up to a point, and three children represents the turning point. This could be due to the economic demands that three children place upon a family.

The impact of length of time a couple has been together, in conjunction with the presence of children in the home is not clear and has not been investigated thoroughly with a North American sample. My research explored how both age and length of time in the relationship affect role-sharing among couples who have at least one child currently living at home.

L. SUMMARY

The preceding literature review was focused on three major areas, the interrelationship in sharing practices among instrumental and expressive domains, the extent to which sharing occurs within traditional and emerging family roles, and variables which may be associated to the degree of sharing practiced in relationships. Major and minor questions have been identified in each of these three areas. These questions will be presented next so that the explicit focus of this study will be identified.

M. MAJOR QUESTIONS ON THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF ROLE-SHARING IN THE DOMAINS

Question One: How is role-sharing structured for the couples in this study?

Question Two: Are there gender differences in the perceptions of the interrelationships of role-sharing in the instrumental and expressive domai

N. MAJOR QUESTIONS ON THE EXTENT OF ROLE-SHARING

Question Three: Has there been a shift in who has the main responsibility for performing housework and childcare tasks for the couples in this study?

Question Four: How satisfied are the couples in this study with h family labor is being shared in their relationship?

Question Five: How are the responsibilities for enacting family roles being shared by couples in this study?

O. MAJOR QUESTIONS ON THE ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE-SHARING

Question Six: Is there a relationship between role-sharing and one's attitude toward sharing of the breadwinning responsibility?

Question Seven: Does possessing a modern attitude towards sex roles lead to an equitable sharing of role responsibilities?

Question Eight: Is there a relationship between role-sharing and one's career role salience attitude?

Question Nine: Does the income difference between partners have an impact upon role-sharing?

Question Ten: Are more educated couples more likely to share role responsibilities equally than less educated couples?

Question Eleven: Are younger couples more likely to share role responsibilities equally than older couples, or than couples who have been together longer?

III. CHAPTER III - METHODOLOGY

In this chapter I describe the methodology used to conduct the study. The chapter is sub-divided into four sections. The first section describes the procedures, the second section details the characteristics of the sample population, the third describes the instruments used in this study, while the fourth and final section briefly outlines the data analysis procedures.

A. PROCEDURE

1. SAMPLING

Strategic sampling techniques were used in this study. This method was settled upon due to the prohibitive expense of conducting random sampling in a study of this size. The limitations that this alternative method imposed upon the study outweigh the projected cost of recruiting approximately 100 to 150 couples randomly. In an effort to draw from as wide a segment of the population as possible a number of different procedures were used.

First, single page posters describing the intention of the study and the criteria required in order to be considered were placed in various locations within the community, including the university campus, daycare centres, local stores, supermarkets and laundromats. All areas of the city were canvassed. Approximtely 4% of the final sample were recruited by this method.

The same announcement was then distributed to various radio and television stations to be broadcast as a public service announcement and also distributed to a community newspaper with a circulation through the city. One particular newspaper conducted an interview with the researcher regarding the project and ran this interview as opposed to the announcement. The response from this single newspaper story alone accounted for over 50%

of the final sample.

Based on the community newspaper's story, two other daily newspapers and two union newspapers ran short summaries about the project. As these methods occurred simultaneously it was difficult to determine specifically how the remaining couples became aware of the study. Frequently, a number of media sources were mentioned, as well as word of mouth from friends who had already volunteered. A final push to recruit couples was done by placing a much shorter announcement in two campus newspapers. This effort produced only a minor response.

The sample was recruited between the months of May and November, 1984. Although it was anticipated that recruiting over the summer months would be more difficult than during the fall, this was not found to be the case.

2. SELECTION CRITERIA

Two criteria were used to select the sample population. First, one member of the couple had to be between the ages of 20 and 45 years. The reason for this restriction was to control for generation effects. The second restriction was that all couples had to have at least one child of any age living at home. This criterion was based on Haas's, (1981) speculation that until the time a couple has a child the partners can operate quite independently of each other; there are no pulls towards establishing traditional sex role patterns. However the demands of a child cause couples to deal directly with a push towards instituting a traditional lifestyle pattern. A final reason for including this criterion was that much less is known about how couples with children share roles (Radin & Russell, 1981; Stafford et al., 1977). Thus by including this criterion my study could make a significant contribution to the existing body of literature in the area.

3. DATA COLLECTION

Couples who met the selection criteria and registered their interest in participating were mailed a study package which contained a covering letter which explained the purpose of the study, who the researcher was, and why the study was being conducted. Each participant was informed that their identity would not be revealed by the researcher. The package also contained an instruction sheet, two copies of the questionnaire, and two request forms; one was to be used if participants wanted to receive a summary of the results mailed to them, and the second was to be returned if they wished to volunteer to be interviewed at a future date. Also, two addressed, stamped envelopes were included. One was to be used to return the completed questionnaire, and the other, which was not addressed to myself, was to be used for returning the request forms. Copies of each of these forms are contained in Appendix A.

A total of 170 questionnaires were eventually mailed to interested persons. The majority of the sample came from Edmonton and surrounding area. Everyone who acknowledged meeting the selection criteria was mailed a package. Of the 170 questionnaires mailed out, a total of 111 completed questionnaires were eventually returned. After examining the completed questionnaires eight couples were found to not meet the selection criterion of having children at home. These couples were dropped from the data analysis portions of my study, although their responses were included in the reliability analyses.

Considering the length of the questionnaires involved, and the fact that no followup or reminder mailing was done, this return rate of 65% was a pleasant surprise, and slightly higher than the average reported for studies using these types of procedures (Borg, 1963). Also, a total of 102 couples requested summaries of the results and a total of 37 volunteered to be interviewed. Again, these rates were a pleasant surprise to this researcher and may indicate the level of interest and belief in the value of this project.

B. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

1. AGE

The ages of the men in the study ranged from 22 to 53 years, and for women the range was between 22 and 46 years. The mean male age was 35.1, and the mean female age was 35.1. The median ages for men and women respectively were 34.5 years and 32 years.

2. LIVING ARRANGEMENT

Almost 96% of the couples were married with the remaining 4% cohabiting. Couples had been together from 1 to 25 years in total, and the average length of time couple had been together was 10.0 years. As a whole the couples in this study appeared to be fairly committed to one another, having survived the two-year and seven-year hurdles commonly thought to be difficult times for relationships.

Only a small percentage of men and women in the sample had been married previously (13.6% for men, 10.7% for women). All of these individuals reported that they had been married once previously. A slightly higher proportion of the sample had previously lived with someone in an intimate relationship. Approximately 15% of the men and 22% of the women reported being intimately involved prior to their current relationship and on the average these individuals had had one relationship of this type prior to their current one.

3. CHILDREN

Because one of the criteria for inclusion in the study was the presence of at least one child at home, all the couples met this criterion. The number of children living at home ranged from 1 to 5 with 29% of the couples having one child and 44% having two children still at home. It was of interest to note that in over 70% of the households, there

was at least one child under 6 years of age.

4. EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Data on the educational level of the couples are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Educational Level of Couples

Level	Male %	Female %
Less than high school	6.8	3.9
High school diploma	14.6	27.4
Some university	7.8	13.6
Technical degree	16.5	6.8
Bachelor's degree	31.1	37.9
Some graduate school	6.8	9.7
Master's degree	7.8	2.9
Ph.D., M.D., LL.B.	8.7	3.9

A wide range of education levels is represented in the sample. Although the highest percentage for both men and women is for having obtained a Bachelor's degree (31% and 38% respectively), the sample is not overly represented in this direction. Approximately 46% of the men and 52% of the women have less than a Bachelor's degree and only 16% of the men and 7% of the women have obtained a degree higher than a Bachelor's.

5. EMPLOYMENT STATUS

The employment statuses of the individuals in this study are shown in Table 2 and appear to reflect current societal norms. The sample of women can almost be divided into thirds, with one-third of the women employed in a full time capacity, one-third employed in a part time capacity, and slightly higher than one quarter of the sample being at home by choice. The "other" category was the next most frequently used by women to describe their status. Often this meant that the individuals could fit into two or more categories equally well.

Table 2

Employment Status

Employment Category	Percentages	
	Male	Female
Unemployed	1.9	1.9
Employed - part time	2.9	33.0
Employed - full time	84.5	31.1
School- full time	3.9	1.0
Disabled	0	1.0
At home by choice	1.9	27.2
Other	4.9	4.9

For men, almost 85% were employed on a full time basis, followed in frequency by the "other" category, being at school full time, or working part time or being unemployed.

The "other" category was frequently used by men when they were self-employed. If one breaks the male sample down into two categories, those involved in work and those not working, the ratio is 92.3% to 7.7%. The percentage of men who listed their status as being at home by choice was 1.9%.

6. SUMMARY

Overall the couples who comprise this sample are in their mid-thirties, have been married for ten years, and have a child under the age of six. Both parents have completed high school and perhaps obtained a Bachelor's degree, or have continued on with their education past high school. For the most part, husbands are working full time and approximately two-thirds of the wives are employed in full or part-time work so that the overall responsibility for breadwinning does not rest exclusively on the male's shoulders.

C. INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire which was mailed to interested parties consisted of seven sections: background information questionnaire, role-sharing information questionnaire, financial information questionnaire, breadwinner attitude questionnaire, work role salience questionnaire, sex role attitude questionnaire, and sex role inventory questionnaire. Each of these sections asked different questions and had specific instructions as to the time frame an individual was to use in answering the questions. The final section was included to gather data for another research project therefore it will not be discussed in this section. (see appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire).

1. SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Fifteen questions were included in this section. The purpose of the section was to gather demographic information. Questions asked for the respondent's sex, age, living arrangement, duration of this arrangement, whether the respondent had ever been married

or co-habited before, number of instances that this occurred, the number and ages of children at home, the respondent's level of education and that of the partner, and finally, the respondent's employment status and that of the partner.

2. SECTION 2: ROLE SHARING INFORMATION

This section consisted of 86 questions and was subdivided into two sections. The first subsection contained questions 1 to 18. This section was designed to gather information generally about the division of labor in the areas of housework and childcare for each couple in the study. The first nine questions focused upon the area of housework, the last nine questions asked about childcare.

Each of these sets of questions began by first asking whether the couple used any hired or outside help in these areas. It was thought that gathering this information could prove helpful eventually in categorizing couples. The next six questions asked the respondents to make summary estimates of both the percent contribution and the daily time involvement that they, their partner, and the hired/outside help made to the area in question. The strengths and weaknesses of obtaining information through these two types of questions have been discussed by Pleck (1982) and the conclusion is that the strengths outweigh the inherent and obvious weaknesses. Although respondents made their summary time estimates in hours per day, these data were eventually recoded into minutes per day for statistical analysis.

The final two questions in both of these subsections (housework and childcare) assessed the degree of satisfaction the respondent felt towards the way the division of labor was being handled in that area, and then provided the respondent with an opportunity to express his or her feelings about this.

The second section of this part contained 68 questions. These questions asked for more specific information about the sharing of specific tasks across seven family roles. One of the major purposes of this study was to investigate role sharing across instrumental and

expressive family roles. A thorough review of the research literature in the area revealed that no suitable research instrument existed which would achieve this purpose, therefore one was developed. The major limitation of the previous instruments was that they mainly focused on domestic tasks and frequently excluded childcare, kinship, and decision making items (see Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Blumberg & Schwartz, 1983; Perucci et al., 1978). Also, no instrument was uncovered which dealt with therapeutic and sexual behavior within a role framework other than Nye et al., (1976) and even there the questions asked were not precisely what was needed for this study. Thus, a questionnaire was developed to gather the kinds of information which were pertinent to my research questions. When applicable, items and formats used by Blood & Wolfe, (1960); Blumberg & Schwartz, (1983); Nye et al, (1976); Stafford et al, (1977); and Walker & Woods, (1960) were used in the construction of this scale.

The intent of this scale was to assess role sharing across applicable family roles. To do this, common tasks were selected from a pool of tasks based on other research instruments and these tasks were grouped into the seven family roles identified by Nye et al. (1976) as having a normative structure. The breakdown of the numbers of tasks by role is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Number of Tasks for Each Role Domain

Domain	Number of Tasks
Domestic	10 tasks
Handyman	8 tasks
Childcare	12 tasks
Kinship	6 tasks
Decision Making	12 tasks
Therapeutic	9 tasks
Sexual	11 tasks

No attempt was made to weight each of the roles equally by tasks as eventually the tasks were to be factor analysed and reduced to composites which might or might not resemble the initial structure. Thus each task was conceived of as being a single variable at this stage.

For each task except those in the decision making role, the intention of the researcher was to determine how often each spouse performed the task. To do this a nine point scale was used. The number 1 on the scale meant that the respondent felt that they always did that task, while the number 9 meant that they thought that their partner always performed that task. The midpoint of the scale was 5, and it represented both partners equally performing the task. This same format was used with the decision making items, however the question asked was which partner had more influence in making the decision. Respondents could also indicate if a task was not performed in their family. One important instruction given to the respondents in filling out this questionnaire was that they were to do so independently of their spouses.

Secondary questions were asked of each respondent in relation to each of the tasks. However the data generated from these questions were not analysed for the study reported here. The secondary questions to the tasks in the domestic, childcare, handyman, and kinship role had to do with who initiated the doing of each of these tasks. A similar nine point response scale was provided for the answers to these questions. The rationale for including this question was based on the contention that doing and being responsible for a task can be two separate issues. The secondary question used with the decision making items assessed the value the respondent placed upon that particular decision. The assumption behind this was that the more one values an issue, the more one is likely to have some influence on the outcome. For the therapeutic and sexual questions, the degree of satisfaction one felt towards one's partners behavior was assessed. Thus individuals were being asked to comment about their style of interacting in these areas and whether they felt satisfied or not with the current pattern.

The responses to these questions were reflected before being analysed. All the female scores on the primary role-sharing variables (questions 19 to 86) were reflected so that 1=9 2=8, etc. Once reflected, the number scales now had the same meaning for both sexes as to how frequently one partner or the other performed tasks. Thus following this procedure 1 meant that the husband does it all, and 9 meant the wife does it all. The mid-point, 5, still stood for equal participation. The same procedure was also done for the secondary variable on the initiation of tasks (for questions 19 to 54 only). The remaining data were not reflected. By reflecting the data the agreement could now be determined between the male and the female responses, and the male and the female scores could be averaged in later analyses.

3. SECTION 3: FINANCIAL INFORMATION

The third section of the questionnaire contained 16 questions which gathered information on how individuals earned, managed, and spent income. The questions regarding the spending of income used a similar nine point scale as the one employed in the previous section of the questionnaire. Thirteen different expenses which covered household, childcare and personal items were chosen. Again, female responses on the questionnaire were reflected so that in the final data, 1 means that the male pays for all of the item, and 9 means that the female partner does this. The final question simply asked for the absolute difference between the partners in their monthly incomes. Only the data from this question were used in the analysis reported here.

4. SECTION 4: BREADWINNER ATTITUDE

This section contained four questions which asked about the respondent's attitudes towards the sharing of breadwinning responsibility between partners. The questions were based on descriptive questions Haas (1977) employed in her study. She found that these did differentiate breadwinning patterns among role sharing couples. The first two questions

appeared to tap the issue of obligations, while the latter two the issue of rights. The questions were subjected to principal component analysis followed by varimax rotation to determine the structure of the instrument. The analysis produced two separate solutions, based upon sex. For women a single factor emerged and all four questions loaded on this factor .4 or greater. For men, the solution produced two separate factors, one containing extremely high loadings of questions one and two, and non-significant loadings for questions three and four. The reverse occurred for the second male factor, with questions three and four loading highly and questions one and two showing non-significant loadings. Based on these findings, three separate composite scores were formed for this data. A breadwinner mean attitude score was made for women in the study, based on their responses to all four questions. For men a breadwinner obligation score was formed, based on the mean of question one and two. and a breadwinner right attitude score was formed from the mean of questions three and four.

5. SECTION 5: WORK ROLE SALIENCE

Due to the overall length of my questionnaire, it was decided to use the short form of the Work Role Salience Questionnaire rather than the full questionnaire. The short form consists of six questions, and has an alpha reliability of .83 with the full questionnaire. The form was derived from a factor analysis solution which produced three factors, and the two items with the highest loadings on these factors comprise the short form (Greenhaus, 1973; Greenhaus & Simon, 1976).

This scale consisted of 6 items of a Likert format developed by Greenhaus (1971). Respondents express their agreement with statements like "I could never be truly happy in life unless I achieved success in my job or career" on a 5 point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. A total score is obtained by summing responses. Internal consistency reliability (alpha) of the Work Role Salience Scale was reported to be .83 for women and .90 for men. The Work Role Salience Scale has been related to self esteem

(r=.41) (Greenhaus, 1973); occupational congruence (r=.27) and tendency for choosing ideal occupations (r=.29) (Greenhaus, 1970); and to the strength and number of conflicts experienced by working women with high career salient husbands (r=.34) versus wives with low career salient husbands (r=.12). The scale has not been used to investigate the relationship between level of work role salience and familial role sharing. In personal communication with the author, Jeffrey Greenhaus, he responded by saying "There is often an implication that highly work-involved people devote little time to domestic roles. However, I am not aware of any studies that tested this directly." (personal communication, 1983). Thus, using this instrument, the Work Role Salience Scale, in this particular manner will be unique to my study.

6. SECTION 6: SEX ROLE ATTITUDE SCALE

The Sex Role Attitude Scale was developed by Osmond and Martin (1975) to assess sex role attitudes on a continuum ranging from modern to traditional. The questionnaire asks 31 questions and a Likert-type scale with five response categories ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree is used. Items are grouped into four categories:

a. familial roles for men and women;

b. extra-familial roles for each sex;

c. stereotypes of male and female charactistics and behaviors, and

d. social change as related to sex roles.

Reliability of the S.R.A. scale, measured by Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was 0.88. The scale has a mean of 80 and standard deviation of 14. Lower scores on the scale indicate a modern response pattern, while a high score indicates a more traditional one.

The authors indicate that the measure is sensitive enough to reflect the degree of sex differentiation and sex typing which occurs within the familial role component. They share with Hefner et al. (1974) the definition of traditional and modern attitudes. That is, individuals who hold modern views of social roles would not be constrained by traditional

definitions of sex role stereotypes. Sex would no longer be a requisite characteristic for the performance of any social role.

The authors report the following evidence of the scale's validity:

1. Responses to 30 of the 32 items were significantly associated ($p < .001$) in the predicted direction to questionnaire items included as validity checks
   a. how great a need do you feel there is to do something about sexism in our society, and
   b. to what extent do you feel that the social roles of men and women in the modern world should be a vital issue of concern.
2. Before construction of the scale, preliminary items were submitted to judges who were then asked to classify items as reflecting "modern" or "traditional" sex role orientation. All items in the final scale were unanimously agreed upon by ten judges (Osmond & Martin, 1975).

D. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The data in this study were analysed in four phases. The procedures used in each phase will be briefly outlined here and explained in more detail in the following chapters. All analyses were performed using SPSSX programs (Nie et al., 1983) unless otherwise noted.

1. PHASE ONE: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

The first phase of the data analysis involved analysing the reliability of the data and preparing it for further statistical treatment. Because of the controversy over the reliability of individual versus couple data found in the literature this seemed appropriate.

Two major questions were asked about the data gathered in this study. Both revolve around how well partners' responses agree with one another. The first question was: do both partners agree that a task either is or is not being performed in their relationship? If a couple could not show substantial agreement in this area, then it was felt that little faith

could be placed in their responses and their data would not be used in future analyses. After the female data were reflected, cross-tabulations were run on all relevant data. Three indexes were produced. One index showed the extent to which the couples agreed that a task was not performed in their home. A second index was produced which revealed the extent to which there was agreement that a task was performed in the family. The third index was a total of these two indexes the index of agreement and the index of non-agreement. In every instance these indexes were equal to or greater than the values expected by chance.

The second question was: is there agreement about how frequently each partner performs a particular task? For this analysis intra-class correlations were run on each variable. This procedure is frequently employed in studies in which it is natural to think of members of the same class as correlated, as in the study of twins (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). This method produced a measure of the degree to which couples showed perfect agreement on how the division of labor occured in their family. The intraclass correlations ranged from .03 to .99, with the median being .51. Since the data appeared to the researcher to be fairly reliable further analysis could be performed.

2. PHASE TWO: ANALYSIS OF THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF SHARING ON DIFFERENT TASKS

Phase two of the data analysis consisted of factor analysing the role sharing data and deriving composite role-sharing scores. Briefly, the following steps were taken. First, responses to questions 19 to 86 of the role-sharing questionnaire were factor analysed separately for the males and the females in this study. Four questions were not used as less than 50% of the couples performed these tasks. Principal component analysis with a varimax rotation was used in both cases. The structures were then compared using a factor matching program to determine whether there were significant differences in the separate factor solutions. The two structures were found to be similar in structure. The male and the

female role-sharing data were then averaged and these data were then factor analysed using principal component analysis with a varimax rotation. Composite factor scores were derived from this factor solution. Raw scores were used to construct the composite scores and in the case where a variable loaded negitively on the factor the raw scores were reflected accordingly, (1 became 9, 2 became 8, etc). This particular method is commonly utilized and accepted, especially for exploratory work (Comrey, 1973, pp. 232-233).

3. PHASE THREE: ANALYSIS OF THE EXTENT OF ROLE-SHARING

Frequency distributions of the factor scores for couples on all nine factors were obtained in order to determine the proportion of the sample who shared on each domain. These distributions illustrated how role responsibilities were being shared in the sample and also illustrated the skew in the distributions of the responsibilities. Equal sharing was operationalized along the lines employed by Haas (1977). Factor scores which were below 4 or above 6 meant that the tasks in that domain were performed more by one partner. In this study mean scores which fell between 4 and 6 were considered to mean equal sharing. Summary statistics of the response summary estimates of time and percent contributions to housework and childcare were also computed in order to determine the contributions made by each sex to these areas. Simple t-tests were run when comparisons of means were desired.

4. PHASE FOUR: ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE-SHARING

The final data analysis procedures used in the study involved running simple and multiple correlations between the factor scores and the antecedent variables. Correlations were also calculated between the presumed antecedents and the summary estimates of time and percent for housework and childcare. The antecedent variables set consisted of the following: male and female breadwinner attitude, male and female sex role attitude, male and female career role salience, monthly income difference as reported by both partners,

male and female education levels, age of both partners, and the number of years the couple had been together. After performing these simple correlations step-up multiple regressions using the antecedents which produced significant correlations were run on each of the composite role-sharing scores. These analyses were performed using the SPSSX procedures described by Nie et al.(1983).

IV. CHAPTER IV THE RELIABILITY OF THE DATA

A. RATIONALE AND METHOD

The study of the family has been plagued with conceptual and methodological problems (Douglas & Wind, 1978; Thompson & Walker, 1982). One of the main weaknesses has been the tendency for researcher to rely on the responses of one family member (usually the wife) in gathering data on family behavior. This has prompted one theorist to suggest that the field of family sociology be renamed "wives' family sociology" (Safilos-Rothschild, 1969). Some researchers maintain that the perceptions of one spouse are valid and reliable (Blood &Wolfe,1960; Crooke Keller & Catlin, 1974; Scanzoni, 1980). However, there is a growing body of findings which contradict this belief (Douglas & Wind, 1978; Gambois & Willett, 1970; Larson, 1974; Olson & Rambusky, 1972; Turk & Bell, 1972). In some cases these discrepancies between spouses may have arisen due to methodological problems like requests for ambiguous information, the recall involved, or errors in mental arithmetic (Douglas & Wind, 1978). When these factors are taken into consideration across all instances they do not offer sufficient explanation for the differences which arise between spousal perceptions of relationship behaviors (Huston & Robins, 1982). Other plausible explanations have been proposed which do not rest on methodological problems.

It has been suggested that the responses of husbands and wives are influenced by socially prescribed norms regarding sex roles and that one's attitude can effect the reporting of relationship behavior in the following ways. A traditional sex role attitude exercises a pull effect on couples causing them to show high levels of agreement with each other in areas and decisions which are stereotypically sex typed (Douglas & Wind, 1978; Larson, 1974; Turk & Bell, 1974). Thus in areas where traditional norms prescribe specialization by sex, agreement tends to be higher than that observed for areas in which relationship properties or behaviors are emerging (Turk & Bell, 1972). If the characteristics being

assessed are considered socially undesirable then individuals show a tendency to under report their own behavior and over report that of their partner (Turk & Bell, 1972). When the characteristic being assessed occurs infrequently then discrepancies have been found to occur more often between spousal reports (Douglas & Wind, 1978). Although some researchers have felt that men show a tendency to overreport their levels of participation (Haas, 1981; Nye et al., 1976; Perucci et al., 1978) others have found no sex differences to this tendency (Douglas & Wind,1978; Larson, 1974; Turk & Bell, 1972).

B. PROCEDURES

Given these considerations, how was the reliability established for the data gathered in this study? Reliability was conceptualized as the extent to which partners' responses were in agreement with one another. With this in mind, two major questions concerning the data were asked. The first was to what extent do the partners agree that a task is or is not performed within their relationshop? It was thought that the data would certainly be questionable if couples could not show high levels of agreement at this stage. SPSSx crosstabulations (Nie et al., 1983) were done on all relevant items to determine the extent of agreement of occurrence and the extent of agreement of non-occurrence among couples. An index of total agreement was also computed.

The second question focused on whether both partners would agree in their perceptions of which one of them did a task more often than the other. This involved a much finer assessment of the degree of agreement than the previous question. Intraclass correlation coefficients were calculated for each task for that portion of the sample that reported performing the task. These intraclass correlations produced a coefficient of agreement between partners for each task.

C. INTERRATER AGREEMENT OF TASK PERFORMANCE

Table 4 shows the index of total agreement, index of agreement of occurrence, the index of agreement of non-occurrence, and the chance values for each of these indexes. The index of total agreement, index of agreement of occurrences and index of agreement of non-occurrences are calculated as following. First the responses were transformed into dichotomous variables. All responses about the frequency of task performance were coded as 1, while the non-performance responses were catagorized as 0. SPSSx cross-tabulations were then run on each variable. The procedure produced four cells containing the following data: the number of cases where both partners agreed that a task was performed by one of them (Y), the number of cases where both partners agreed that a particular task was not performed by one of them (X), and the other two cells contained those cases where the partners opinions did not agree with one another (Z). The index of agreement of occurrence was then calculated using the formula $Y/(Y+Z)$. The index of agreement of non-occurrence was calculated using the formula $X/(X+Z)$. The total agreement value was calculated from the formula $Y+X/(Y+X+Z)$. Chance values, which represent the amount of agreement one could expect to occur by chance for each of these indices, were also calculated to provide a standard for comparison.

In every instance the index of agreement displayed by the sample was equal to or greater than the chance index. The ranges for the three indices are as follows:

Index of total agreement	68.2% to 100%
Index of agreement of occurrence	48.4% to 100%
Index of agreement of non-occurrence	6.2% to 100%

The range of values for non-occurrence is quite large and some of the indices are quite low by comparison to those found for index of agreement of occurrence. However, even these figures are comparatively larger than the chance values expected for that number of couples. From these results one can conclude that the couples in this sample did exhibit an acceptable degree of congruence as far as agreeing on the performance or non-performance of family tasks.

Table 4

Agreement of Occurrence and Non-Occurrence

Variable	Total Agreement	Chance	Percent Agreement Occurrence	Chance	Percent Agreement Non-Occurrence	Chance
Cook Breakfast	92	85	92	84	38	0
Cook Evening Meal	100	100	100	100	0	0
Vacuum	93	89	93	89	30.	0
Iron Clothes	90	83	95	81	38	1
Repair Clothes	95	93	99	93	16	0
Laundry	100	100	100	100	100	100
Clean Bathrooms	98	91	98	91	66	2
Shop for Groceries	100	100	100	100	0	100
Wash Dishes	97	97	97	97	0	0
Dust	89	81	88	78	33	1
Repair Things at Home	98	96	98	96	33	0
Care for Pets	92	49	86	26	85	23
Take Out Garbage	95	91	94	91	25	2
Yardwork	97	92	97	92	50	2
Shovel Snow	91	87	91	87	25	4
Wash Car	90	83	89	82	31	5
Pay Bills	100	100	100	100	0	0
Drive Car	100	100	100	100	0	0
Dress Children	91	66	90	61	67	5
Drive Children to Daycare	90	51	79	17	85	35
Pick Children Up From Daycare	90	51	79	17	84	35

Table 4

Agreement of Occurrence and Non-Occurrence

Variable	Total Agreement	Chance	Percent Agreement Occurrence	Chance	Percent Agreement Non-Occurrence	Chance
Drive Children to Activities	87	67	85	63	51	4
Pick Children Up From Activities	83	61	48	4	85	66
Bath Children	94	67	93	63	76	43
Diaper and Change	93	53	89	37	84	1
Assist with Homework	85	49	73	25	73	25
Play with Children	95	87	95	86	50	4
Stay Home with Sick Child	87	79	87	77	31	1
Discipline Children	95	85	95	85	55	6
Pick up after Children	91	83	90	82	33	7
Write Letters to My Relatives	83	72	82	69	33	3
Write Letters to my Partner's Relatives	79	71	77	69	23	3
Buy Gifts for My Relatives	99	97	99	97	50	0
Buy Gifts for my Partner's Relatives	97	95	97	95	25	0
Phone My Relatives	97	95	97	95	25	0
Phone my Partner's Relatives	93	92	93	92	13	0
Decide How to Decorate House	100	100	100	100	0	0
Decide Which Car to Buy	97	93	97	93	40	0
Decide on Vacation	95	92	95	92	29	1
Decide on Food to Buy	93	92	93	92	13	1
Decide How to Discipline Children	95	90	95	90	37	2
Decide on Money for Entertainment	95	93	91	89	9	2
Decide on Children's Chores	89	65	87	61	60	5
Decide on How to Invest Money	89	81	89	79	33	1
Decide on Childcare Arrangements	85	67	83	65	45	3

Table 4

Agreement of Occurrence and Non-Occurrence

Variable	Total Agreement	Chance	Percent Agreement Occurrence	Chance	Percent Agreement Non-Occurrence	Chance
Decide on Insurance	96	96	96	96	0	0
Decide on Friends to Entertain	96	93	96	93	33	0
Decide on Where to Live	96	95	96	95	20	0
Initiate Discussions on Problems	95	95	95	95	0	0
Offer Personal Support	99	99	99	99	0	0
Demonstrate Affection Spontaneously	98	98	98	98	0	0
Keep to Oneself	95	93	95	93	16	0
Assist in Clarifying a Problem	99	99	99	99	0	0
Show Concern for Other's Feelings	99	99	99	99	0	0
Change Their Point of View	86	86	86	85	6	0
Show Interest in How Other's Day has Gone	100	100	100	100	0	0
Change Their Behavior	94	94	94	94	0	0
Let the Other Know They Would Like to have Sex	99	99	99	99	0	0
Initiate Sex	100	100	100	100	0	0
Decide on Sexual Experiences	91	89	91	89	9	0
Refuse Sex	78	73	77	71	17	3
Decide on Birth Control	86	73	85	71	40	3
Bring up Concerns with Partner's Behavior	78	65	75	59	35	5
Decide on Size of Family	90	77	89	75	45	1
Determine Frequency of Contact	85	81	85	81	15	1
Express Satisfaction with Sexual Behavior	89	81	89	81	29	1
Express Dissatisfacion with Sexual Behavior	68	57	62	48	31	9
Let Other Know What Pleases Them Sexually	91	91	91	90	10	0

D. INTERRATER AGREEMENT OF THE EXTENT OF SHARING

The second reliability check was performed on all the role sharing variables included in the previous analysis as well as the response summary estimates gathered on participation in housework and childcare. The intraclass correlation employs a repeated measures design for the analysis of variance. This procedure is most useful in instances where differences between means and variances are relevant to the methodology (McGuire & Haslett, 1969). The intraclass correlation is calculated from the formula (MSb - MSw)/(MSb + MSw) where MSb is the mean square between couples and MSw is the mean square within couples. The results of the calculations are summarized in Table 5. Table 5 also shows the mean of the sharing scores reported by each sex. These will be discussed in section 3 on Gender Differences, later in this chapter. Intraclass correlations were only calculated on that part of the sample who performed the task.

The intraclass correlations range from .03 to .99 for the role sharing variables, with the median intraclass correlation being .51. The median intraclass correlations by *role* are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Median Intraclass Correlations by Roles

Role Domain	Median Correlation
Domestic(n=10)	.73
Handyman (n=8)	.65
Childcare (n=12)	.67
Kinship (n=6)	.45
Decision Making (n=12)	.43
Sexual (n=11)	.40
Therapeutic (n=9)	.17

Table 7 shows intraclass correlations for the estimates on housework and childcare. They ranged from .02 to .80,. and from .43 to .86 respectively for the response summary estimates of time and of percent contributions. The median intraclass correlation for time was .52, and for percent it was .75. A comparison of the median intraclass correlations for the three procedures used in this study show that response summary estimates of percent contributions (.75) are followed by summary estimate of time (.52) followed by the role–sharing task estimates (.51). Thus couples agree more in their estimates of the proportionate contribution each makes to housework and childcare than they do in their estimates of time or relative frequency for specific tasks. This may be due to the method of assessment, as most individuals are probably more familiar with making percentage estimates of aspects of their behavior than they are with making time estimates. In order to provide an accurate assessment of the time one spends performing these tasks, some familiarity with the task(s) and the average length of time required to perform it is required. If a couple segregates household responsibilities than the room for error in estimates of the time involved or the frequency with which the other partner performs any task could increase, and lower the extent to which their responses would be in agreement.

Intraclass correlations were also run on financial variables and role sharing initiation variables. The range for the former was .51 to .81 with the median being .75. For the latter variables the range was .18 to .81 and the median intraclass correlation was .55. This suggests that over the domains assessed in this study by the questionnaire, that the reliability of the research instrument was very high.

Larson (1974) used Robinson's A to calculate the degree of agreement and disagreement between spouses for three types of family unit behavior – perceptions of family power, perceptions of family problem solving, and family role differentiation. Indices of agreement of .42, .67 and .69 were found respectively. These figures were significantly

Table 5

Intraclass Correlations of the Degree of Agreement About the Extent of Sharing

Task	Number of Couples	Intraclass Correlation	Male Mean	SD	Female Mean	SD	F ratio
Cook Breakfast	96	.65	5.2	2.39	5.7	2.25	5.51+
Cook Evening Meal	111	.75	6.8	2.13	7.0	2.2	1.55
Vacuum	101	.78	6.0	2.35	6.3	2.43	3.97+
Iron Clothes	95	.88	8.2	1.55	8.1	1.65	0.41
Repair Clothes	105	.57	8.1	1.68	8.3	1.61	1.63
Laundry	110	.67	7.4	1.75	7.5	1.72	0.21
Clean Bathrooms	105	.59	7.1	1.97	7.8	1.69	23.16+
Shop for Groceries	111	.82	6.1	2.19	6.3	2.23	2.53
Wash Dishes	108	.70	5.7	1.87	5.9	2.02	3.48
Dust	93	.81	7.3	2.09	8.1	1.63	21.69+
Repair Things at Home	108	.51	2.5	1.89	2.9	2.08	5.46+
Care for Pets	50	.83	4.9	2.17	4.7	2.29	0.28
Take Out Garbage	101	.46	3.4	2.03	3.9	2.07	4.69+
Yardwork	105	.65	3.2	1.91	3.5	1.87	2.82
Shovel Snow	99	.60	2.2	1.57	2.7	1.93	7.87+
Wash Car	95	.70	2.9	2.20	3.5	2.38	12.23+
Pay Bills	111	.82	4.9	3.15	5.3	3.14	4.10+
Drive Car	110	.66	2.4	2.10	2.3	1.85	0.27
Get Children Dressed	79	.63	6.5	2.17	6.7	2.13	0.63
Drive Children to Daycare	37	.94	4.7	3.07	4.7	3.3	0.02
Pick Children Up From Daycare	37	.75	5.7	2.88	5.9	2.87	0.16

Table 5 (continued)

Intraclass Correlations of the Degree of Agreement About the Extent of Sharing

Task	Number of Couples	Intraclass Correlation	Male Mean	SD	Female Mean	SD	F ratio
Drive Children to Activities	78	.74	5.7	2.10	5.9	2.09	2.75
Pick Children up From Activities	77	.70	5.5	2.09	5.9	2.09	3.41
Bath Children	81	.61	6.5	1.63	6.2	1.82	2.13
Diaper and Change Children	61	.99	6.3	1.3	6.3	1.3	.401
Assist Children with Homework	44	.59	5.7	1.6	6.1	1.7	2.6
Play with Children	96	.40	4.9	1.5	5.1	1.5	.45
Stay at Home with a Sick Child	86	.78	6.9	2.1	7.1	2.3	2.18
Discipline Children	97	.28	5.0	1.40	5.3	1.05	6.96+
Pick Up after Children	94	.30	5.8	1.61	7.0	1.56	49.56+
Write Letters to My Relatives	82	.64	6.7	2.73	6.6	2.70	0.08
Write Letters to my Partner's Relatives	80	.41	8.5	1.07	8.7	0.79	3.90
Buy Gifts for My Relatives	109	.50	6.5	2.3	6.7	2.5	0.71
Buy Gifts for my Partner's Relatives	107	.34	7.7	8.61	8.0	1.58	2.20
Phone My Relatives	107	.54	4.2	2.49	3.9	2.55	2.33
Phone my Partner's Relatives	103	.27	7.6	1.55	8.1	1.61	5.73+
Decide How to Decorate House	111	.51	6.2	1.41	5.9	1.61	4.481+
Decide on Which Car to Buy	105	.50	3.5	1.57	3.5	1.67	0.004
Decide on Where to go on Vacation	104	.30	5.3	1.27	4.9	0.99	9.758+
Decide on How Much Money to Spend on Food	103	.44	6.4	1.87	6.5	2.04	0.23
Decide on How to Discipline Children	100	.32	5.3	1.07	5.3	1.20	0.57
Decide on How Much Money to Spend on Food	100	.48	4.9	1.22	4.8	1.19	1.49
Decide on What Chores Children Should Do	78	.30	5.5	1.20	5.7	1.45	0.33
Decide on How to Invest Money	93	.58	3.9	1.64	3.9	1.89	0.15
Decide on What Child Care Arrangements to Make	79	.41	6.4	1.57	6.6	1.71	0.78
Decide on What Insurance to Purchase	107	.55	4.1	1.87	3.7	1.96	4.01+
Decide on Which Friends to Entertain	105	.33	5.3	1.13	5.2	1.18	0.65

Table 5 (continued)

Intraclass Correlations of the Degree of Agreement About the Extent of Sharing

Task	Number of Couples	Intraclass Correlation	Male Mean	SD	Female Mean	SD	F ratio
Decide on Where to Live	106	.32	5.0	1.40	4.6	1.19	7.20+
Initiate Discussions of Problems	105	.56	5.7	2.03	6.7	1.9	30.93+
Offer Support	108	.32	5.0	1.31	5.27	1.51	2.90
Demonstrate Affection Spontaneouslu	109	.54	4.7	1.77	5.0	1.76	1.99
Keep Thoughts/Feelings to Self	104	.47	3.7	2.03	4.0	2.52	1.26
Offer Assistance in Clarifying Problem	109	.12	4.7	1.31	5.4	1.41	15.19+
Show Concern for Other's Feelings	109	.15	5.1	1.16	5.3	1.15	433+
Change Their Point of View	93	.03	4.5	1.43	5.3	1.40	16.46+
Show Interest in Listening to Other	111	.08	5.1	1.25	5.5	1.36	10.05+
Change Their Behavior	102	.17	4.7	1.54	5.3	1.50	10.33+
Let Other Know They Want Sex	110	.51	3.6	1.98	3.9	1.96	1.27
Initiaye Sex	111	.63	3.3	1.85	3.5	1.91	0.77
Decide On Sexual Experiences	99	.26	3.9	1.53	4.3	1.41	6.92+
Refuse Sex	80	.59	6.7	1.80	6.5	1.83	1.03
Decide on Birth Control	84	.40	6.3	1.73	6.3	1.88	0.245
Bring up Concerns About Partner's Sexual Behavior	73	.47	4.7	1.70	4.9	1.80	0.71
Decide on Size of Family	94	.13	5.1	0.91	5.0	1.24	0.131
Determine Frequency of Sexual Contact	92	.17	4.7	1.93	4.4	2.09	0.779
Express Satisfaction with Current Sexual Behavior	92	.15	5.1	1.26	5.3	1.09	1.49
Express Dissatisfaction with Current Sexual Behavior	59	.53	4.5	1.61	4.5	1.79	0.0
Let Other Know What Pleases Them Sexually	101	.35	4.5	1.57	4.9	1.43	3.715

+ F. ratio is for Mean Differences between Males and Females.

greater than chance, Larson (1974) indicated. The relationship between Robinson's A and Fisher intraclass correlation is such that a Robinson's A equal to 0.50 would be similar to a Fisher intraclass correlation of 0.0. Robinson's A varies only between 0.0 and 1.0, where 0.0 equals a perfect negative relationship and 1.0 a perfect positive relationship. Thus, by comparison to Larson's (1974) data, one can also conclude that the couples in this study revealed an acceptable degree of agreement on role sharing items.

These findings illustrate the tendency for couples to show higher levels of agreement in areas which have been traditionally defined as belonging to one sex or the other. In roles such as the sexual and therapeutic where norms are considered to be emerging (Nye et al., 1976) the average level of agreement is lower. This may be due to the nature of the task which is being estimated, or because norms regarding role behaviors have not been clearly established as yet. Couples may have more difficulty estimating the frequency with which a task is performed because they are not used to thinking about their behavior in these areas in the ways employed in this questionnaire. Couples may have a much easier time quantifying how frequently they cooked breakfast versus how often they express satisfaction with their partner's behavior.

E. GENDER DIFFERENCES

No clear trend exists with respect to a gender bias towards over-reporting or under-reporting one's participation in family tasks. Table 5 reveals 35 instances in this study where significant mean differences occured between the spouses' reports of task participation. All but one of these differences occured in either the role sharing variables. The one exception occured in the response summary estimate of the percent of housework the female partner performs.

The mean differences can be categorized into four groups. The first group contains 19 instances where both partners agree that the female partner performs the task more often (14 of these cases have means of 6 or greater, the remaining 5 have means between

Table 7

Intraclass Correlations of Percent and Time Estimates

Variable	Number of Couples	Intraclass correlation	Male Mean	Sd	Female Mean	Sd	F ratio
Male Percent of Housework	111	.71	26.2	18.79	23.2	17.70	5.29
Male Time in Housework	111	.39	70.9	62.0	59.1	73.21	2.77
Male Percent of Childcare	105	.55	27.8	16.95	28.5	18.09	0.21
Male Time in Childcare	102	.69	120.0	98.34	130.5	124.95	1.49
Female Percent of Housework	111	.79	69.3	19.95	72.6	19.89	7.31f
Female Time in Housework	111	.35	197.5	151.89	174.5	118.37	2.49
Female Percent of Childcare	105	.43	58.9	24.29	63.1	22.65	2.92
Female Time in Childcare	101	.65	299.9	219.53	297.4	204.57	0.02
Help's Percent of Housework	11	.86	22.5	20.34	28.0	16.88	4.44
Help's Time in Housework	12	.02	113.7	266.99	61.5	45.79	0.44
Help's Percent of Childcare	21	.85	23.9	20.43	21.3	18.82	1.26
Help's Time in Childcare	33	.80	247.7	181.67	242.5	189.25	0.06

Table 8

Intraclass Correlations of Financial Variables

Variable	Number of Couples	Intraclass correlation	Male Mean	Sd	Female Mean	Sd	F ratio
Financial Variables							
Rent/Morgage	92	.80	2.8	2.44	2.8	2.53	0.07
Child Care Expenses	58	.51	4.4	2.77	4.9	3.19	2.09
Investments	74	.67	3.4	2.41	3.3	2.39	0.004
House Cleaning Help	16	.63	5.7	2.62	5.3	2.93	0.698
Groceries	104	.80	3.9	2.77	3.6	2.85	1.917
My Clothes	103	.75	3.1	2.46	3.1	2.53	0.012
Partner's Clothes	104	.63	4.7	2.95	5.3	3.26	3.38
Car Mainterance	102	.79	2.9	2.45	3.1	2.51	1.42
House Insurance	98	.79	2.9	2.46	2.9	2.49	0.016
Entertainment	104	.75	3.3	2.17	3.5	2.35	1.878
Utilities	104	.75	3.3	2.72	3.5	2.89	0.984
My Spending Money	101	.81	2.5	2.25	2.4	2.25	1.907
My Partner's Spending Money	100	.71	5.3	3.09	5.5	3.41	1.037

5 and 6). In 18 of these cases the females estimation of her participation is significantly greater than the estimate given by her partner. In the second group where differences occured in 7 cases the males estimate of their level of task performance was greater than their partner's estimate of their involvement. In both of these groups, the mean differences have occured in tasks which are traditionally segregated by sex. Thus in the first group of cases the tasks include domestic chores such as cooking breakfast, vacuuming, dusting, as well as tasks such as picking up after children, phoning her relatives, decorating the house, showing concern for other's feelings and listening to how the other's day has gone. All of these being traditionally "feminine" tasks. A similar situation is found in examining the differences surrounding the males level of participation. These differences occured in tasks such as repairing things around the house, shoveling snow, deciding which insurance to purchase, and deciding upon the variety of sexual experiences. All these tasks are traditionally "masculine".

The third type of mean differences arose from both partners overestimating their own level of participation relative to their spouse. The means in these cases tended to be on either side of the mid-point of 5 on the role sharing scale. In these cases the male means were all less than 5, and the female means all greater than 5. There were 5 instances of this nature. The disputed tasks involved paying bills, initiating paying bills, as well as three items from the therapeutic role - assisting a spouse in clarifying a problem, changing their point of view during a disagreement, and changing their behavior in order to resolve a difficulty. The social desirability of possessing the latter three qualities is quite evident and this may be why each partner tended to overestimate the frequency with which they displayed that quality in their relationship.

The final group contained three instances of mean differences and appeared to represent the case where both partners underestimated their participation relative to their partner's estimation. Two of these tasks involved making decisions - one about where to live, the other about where to go on vacation. The third task was initiating who would

drive children to day care. It may be that couples in this study viewed having more influence in making these decisions as undesirable and therefore tended to underreport the strength of their influence.

Although significant mean differences were found between couples' perceptions in a fair number of instances, the differences appear to be understandable given the tasks involved. That is, in the majority of cases the tasks in question tend to be specialized normatively by sex. Thus, we would not expect the partner who is not involved, or involved only to a minimum, to be able to provide an accurate account of the others behaviour. In these cases, differences in perceptions are to be expected, and may also attest to the degree to which couples filled out the questionnaires independently of each other. Thus, in a way, the data appears to exhibit precisely the characteristics one would want in order to have confidence in its reliability.

F. COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT RELIABILITY OF DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Because three different methods of data collection were used in the questionnaire, the intraclass correlations allowed for comparisons to be made among the three. Pleck (1982) reported that proportional measures have an advantage over absolute measures, such as response estimates of time, because they are relatively easy for individuals to respond to. The intraclass correlations for the proportion estimates, the role sharing task estimates, and the response summary estimates of time were respectively .70, .51 and .48 which reflects Pleck's (1982) prediction with respect to the respondents' ability to reach agreement on one another's behavior. Because the intraclass correlations are acceptable in all three cases but the kind of information each of the methods provided was significantly different all three measures then were used in this study.

V. CHAPTER V - THE STRUCTURE OF ROLE SHARING

The material in this chapter is organized in the following manner. First the objectives which guided this phase of the study are restated. Then the data analysis procedures used to achieve these objectives are described along with the findings of the analyses. The domains of role-sharing and the differences and similarities which were found in separate analyses of the male and female role-sharing data are discussed. The outcomess of these analyses and their implications for the second phase of the study conclude this chapter.

A. PURPOSE

In this phase of the study the primary goal was to determine the structure of role-sharing. In this context structure means the interrelationships that exist between sharing on the many tasks in the instrumental and expressive domains. It was hypothesized that conceptually meaningful and interpretable domains would emerge through factor analysing the data gathered on the sharing of the 68 different specific tasks that were included on the questionnaire. The patterns couples established would be better understood once the structure of role-sharing was identified.

It was anticipated that these analyses would answer several questions. Would different structures emerge when the male and the female data were analysed separately? Would the domains that emerged resemble the family roles described by Nye et al. (1976)? And would those roles which Nye et al. had identified as emerging in 1976 (i.e., therapeutic and sexual) now be more salient to the role structure of contemporary couples? The procedures which were used to answer these questions are described next.

B. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

To determine how many underlying role-sharing domains there were, sixty-four questions from the role-sharing section of the questionnaire were selected for factor analysis. Four items were eliminated from the factor analysis when it was discovered that less than 50% of the sample performed these tasks. They were: drive children to and pick children up from daycare, care for pets, and assist children with homework.

Principal component analyses were first performed separately on the male role-sharing data and the female role-sharing data. Principal component analysis is recommended in instances where the investigation is considered exploratory (Kim and Muller, 1978; Mulick, 1972). The SPSSX data analysis procedures of Nie et al. (1983) were used. Missing data were eliminated on a pair-wise basis for these analyses.

The decision about how many factors to select for rotation was based on examination of the scree plots for each analysis. When using the scree test the rule of thumb is to examine a graph of the eigenvalues and to stop factoring at the point just above where the plot begins to level off (Cattell, 1965). The scree test has been found to produce more accurate estimations of the factor structure than the other commonly used methods, particularly in cases with medium sample sizes (Zwick & Velicir, 1982). After examining both the male and the female scree plots, 9 factors appeared to produce the best solution for both sexes.

Each of these factor solutions was then rotated to a terminal solution using a Varimax orthogonal rotation. Kim and Mueller (1978) indicate that this rotation method aids in the interpretation of the factors because the variables have more distinctive factor loadings. The resulting factor structures were interpreted and compared. Only variables which loaded .4 or greater were considered significant in interpreting the factor. This level is considered rigorous (Comrey, 1973). Frequently a variable which loaded on a particular male factor also loaded on a female factor. However, the weighting on the two factors was different.

To determine whether the male and the female solutions were similar an orthogonal factor matching program (FACT07), available through the Division of Education Research was selected. This particular program uses the procedure outlined by Schonenmann (1974) to perform orthogonal factor matching on two different factor solutions. A limitation of this program is that the number of factors in both solutions must be identical. The program assesses the amount of difference in variable loadings between pairs of factors. Depending upon the difference in the variable loadings, the factors are judged as similar or not. Tucker's coefficients of congruence are calculated for each pair of factors. In my study, the Tucker coefficients were: .92 for pair 1; .85 for pair 2; .67 for pair 3; .60 for pair 4; .66 for pair 5; .67 for pair 6; .61 for pair 7; .60 for pair 8; and .21 for pair 9. These coefficients suggested that the male factor structure and the female factor structure were quite similar.

Based on this finding, the male and female role-sharing data were then averaged and factor analysed using exactly the same procedures. By averaging the data the overall reliability of each variable improves. Following analyses of the scree plot for this analysis, a nine factor solution was chosen and then rotated using a varimax rotation. A .4 loading for a variable was again used when interpreting these factors.

The final procedure used in this phase of the research the construction of factor scores, was based on the factors which emerged from the factor analysis of the avereged male and female data. A raw score method of constructing factor scores was used. This method is utilized and considered acceptable for exploratory work (Comrey, 1973). The raw scores of all variables which load on a factor are summed. They are not weighted differently. The raw score for any varaible which loaded negatively on a factor was reflected appropriately, and any variable which loaded on more than one factor was only used in constructing the factor score for the domain on which it had its highest loading. Inter-scale corrrelations were run in order to measure the association between factor scores. As expected, the factor scores were correlated to some degree. Comrey (1973) indicated that

these scores will not be absolutely independent since the factors from which they were derived are themselves correlated to some degree.

The factors which emerged from this analysis will be described next in some detail. The similarities and uniquenesses of the separate factor analyses on the male and the female data will also be discussed. Table 9 compares the factors which emerged from each of these analyses, along with the amount of variance that was accounted for by each factor.

C. THE DIMENSIONS OF ROLE SHARING

The initial intent of this study was to clarify the structure of role-sharing. It was hypothesized that, by factor analysing the data gathered on how couples share responsibilities for all the tasks, conceptually meaningful and interpretable domains would emerge. It was also thought that these domains would resemble the family roles described by Nye et al. (1976).

The data were analysed using principal component analysis, and based on interpretation of the scree plot, nine factors were rotated to a final solution using a Varimax rotation. The nine factors in this solution accounted for 51.7% of the total variance, with factor one accounting for 11.7% of this total, factor two accounting for 8.8%, and the variance accounted for by the remaining seven factors ranged from 6.3% to 3.3%.

Only variables which loaded .4 or greater were considered significant for interpretation. Based on an examination of the factor loadings the nine factors were labelled: Domestic/Childcare, Sexual Expression, Decision Making, Therapeutic, Handyman, Homemaker, Kinship, Verbal Expression, and Child Involvement. Table 10 lists the varables and their loadings for each factor which emerged from the factor analysis of the averaged data. Nine items out of the total of 64 did not load .4 or greater on any factor. These items are also listed in Table 10.

Factor scores were constructed based on the variables which loaded on each factor. Simple correlations were then run to determine the inter-relatonships among the domains

Table 9

Comparison of Factor Structures for the Male Data, the Female Data, and the Averaged Data

Total Sample	Variance	Men	Variance	Women	Variance
1 Domestic Childcare	11.7	1 Domestic Childcare	9.7	1 Domestic Childcare	11.3
2 Sexual Expression	8.8	2 Sexual Expression	8.0	2 Sexual Expression	7.8
3 Decision Making	6.3	3 Decision Making/Verbal Expression	6.0	3 Therapeutic	6.2
4 Therapeutic	5.4	4 Handyman	5.3	4 Homemaker	5.3
5 Handyman	4.7	5 Kinship	4.6	5 Handyman	4.7
6 Homemaker	4.3	6 Chauffeur/Communicator	4.3	6 Child Involvement	3.8
7 Kinship/Empathesizer	3.7	7 Child Involvement	3.9	7 Uninterpretable	3.5
8 Verbal Expression	3.6	8 Therapeutic	3.9	8 Kinship	3.5
9 Child Involvement	3.3	9 Family Decision Making	3.5	9 Harmonizer - Suppression of Negative Feelings	3.3

of role-sharing. Table 11 shows these correlations.

1. FACTOR I: DOMESTIC/CHILDCARE

Twelve variables comprised this first factor. Four of these reflected child care tasks like diapering and changing children (.75) and picking up after children (.67), while the remaining seven items all involved domestic tasks such as vacuuming (.75), dusting (.63), cooking meals (breakfast .57, supper .47), and cleaning (washing dishes .63, cleaning bathrooms .56, doing laundry .62). The remaining item, deciding what chores children should do (.49) could be seen as more of a child socialization item than as child care per se; however, teaching children to be responsible and to contribute could be viewed as a component of psychological care.

Considering previous conceptualizations about the structure of role-sharing, finding this kind of a factor is not suprising (i.e., Bernard, 1982; Haas, 1977; Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976). However the fact that this domain contained child care and domestic items was not expected, as in theory these tasks are treated as separate roles. The data here suggests that couples' performance in these two roles is not separate and distinct, but that the responsibilities involved in these roles are integrated. A recent study by Nyquist, Slivken, Spence and Heimreich (1985) identified a similar domain, which they labeled a House factor. They also noted that childcare and domestic task items loaded together.

2. FACTOR II: SEXUAL EXPRESSION

Eight items loaded on this factor, and the theme which emerged contained elements of initiation, control and communication about sexual behavior within the relationship. For example, letting the other know when they would like to have sex loaded highest at .82, while letting the other know what pleases them sexually (.69) and deciding upon the variety of sexual experienced we have together (.61) also loaded on this domain.

Table 10

Factor Analysis of the Sharing Data Averaged Across the Sexes

Variables		Factor Loading
	Factor I Domestic/Child care	
XRS	43 Diaper and change children	.75
	21 Vacuum	.75
	48 Pick up after children	.67
	28 Dust	.63
	27 Wash dishes	.63
	37 Get children dressed in the morning	.63
	46 Stay at home with a sick child	.62
	24 Laundry	.62
	19 Cook breakfast	.57
	25 Clean bathrooms	.56
	61 Decide what chores children should do	.49
	20 Cook evening meal	.47
	Factor II Sexual Expression	
XRS	76 Let partner know they would like to have sex	.82
	77 Initiate sex	.81
	86 Let partner know what pleases them sexually	.69
	85 Express dissatisfaction with current sexual behavior	.66
	78 Decide upon sexual experiences	.61
	79 Refuse to have sex	-.59
	83 Determine frequency of sexual contact	.57
	81 Bring up concerns about partner's sexual behavior	.50
	Factor III Decision making	
XRS	60 Decide on money spent on entertainment	.69
	57 Decide where to go on vacation	.65
	65 Decide which friends to entertain	.61
	59 Decide how to discipline children	.56
	62 Decide how to invest money	.44
	73 Change their point of view when we disagree on an issue which affects the relationship	-.43
	80 Decide upon the method of birth control	.40
	Factor IV Therapeutic	
XRS	47 Discipline children	.63
	72 Show concern for how the other is feeling	.61
	84 Express satisfaction with current sexual behavior	.57
	31 Take out the garbage	.50
	75 Change their behavior in order to resolve a conflict occurring within the relationship	.45

	Factor V Handyman	
XRS	34 Wash car	.67
	33 Shovel snow	.66
	29 Repair things around the house	.66
	32 Do yardwork	.61
	22 Iron clothes	-.50
	36 Drive the car when we go out together	.47
	56 Decide which car to buy	.42
	Factor VI Homemaker	
XRS	26 Shop for groceries	.69
	40 Drive children to activities	.69
	41 Pick children up from activities	.69
	58 Decide how much money to spend on food	.65
	35 Pay bills	.56
	Factor VII Kinship/Empathesizer	
XRS	53 Phone his relatives to maintain contact	.71
	49 Write letters to his relatives	.66
	51 Buy gifts for his relatives	.55
	71 Offer assistance to partner in clarifying a problem or concern	.49
	74 Show an interest in listening to how the other's day has gone	.45
	63 Decide what child care arrangements to make	.43
	Factor VIII Verbal Expression	
XRS	70 Keep thoughts and feelings to oneself	-.76
	67 Initiate discussions of problems with the relationship	.63
	Factor IX Child Involvement	
XRS	42 Bath children	.79
	45 Play with children in the evening	.67
	55 Decide how to decorate house	-.57
	75Change their behavior in order to resolve a conflict occurring within the relationship	.45

Variables which did not load on any factor

XRS	23	Keep clothes in repair
	50	Write letters to her relatives
	52	Buy gifts for her relatives
	54	Phone her relatives to maintain contact
	64	Decide which insurance to purchase
	66	Decide where to live
	68	Offer the other personal support
	69	Demonstrate affection spontaneously
	82	Decide upon the size of our family
	71	Offer assistance to partner in clarifying a problem or a concern

The communication component in this role contained items referring to the expression of positive feelings as well as feelings of dissatisfaction. This factor resembled the sexual expression factor discussed by Parelman (1983) in her analysis of the domains of emotional intimacy, in the communication area. The emergence of this factor supports Nye et al.'s (1976) belief that this role is as salient to couples as some instrumental roles are.

3. FACTOR III: DECISION MAKING

Seven items loaded on this factor, six of them concerned with various decision making topics. The seventh item "change their point of view when we disagree on an issue which affects the relationship" (-.43) illustrates one aspect of the negotiating process for couples. This item was interpreted to mean the opposite, i.e., not change their point of view, due to its negative loading. The items in this domain did not reveal any trend with respect to the groupings of decision, i.e., whether the decision was major or minor, or supposedly "masculine" or "feminine". All these types of decisions were integrated in this domain. In contrast to Nye et al. (1976), who did not consider this area as a separate role, decision making did emerge as a separate, salient domain of role-sharing.

4. FACTOR IV: THERAPEUTIC

Contained in this factor were five items which reflected behaviors of a helping/therapeutic nature. The items which loaded ranged from showing concern (.61) and conflict resolution (.45) to providing positive and negative feedback about another's behavior (i.e., disciplining children, .63, and expressing satisfaction with current sexual behavior, .57). The fifth item to load on this factor (take out garbage, .50) was considered an anomaly as no discernable relationship should be found between it and the other items. However this item was included in the construction of factor scores for this role. This domain does contain similar components to the therapeutic role described by Nye et al. (1976).

5. FACTOR V: HANDYMAN

Seven items loaded on this role, and six of these clearly reflected traditional "masculine" tasks, decisions, or behaviors in and around the home. The seventh item, iron clothes (-.50), loaded negatively so it was interpreted to mean not iron clothes. This item was consistent with the central theme in this domain. Nyquist et al. (1985) found a maintenance factor in their analysis of domestic task sharing which contained similar items to this Handyman domain, which adds support to the salience of this domain.

6. FACTOR VI: HOMEMAKER

Containing five items, this sixth factor appeared to be the feminine complement to factor V. The themes represented on this factor were food purchasing, budgeting and expenses, and chauffering children. All these categories have been stereotyped as behaviors of the typical housewife and mother. One difference between this domain and the first domain, the domestic/childcare domain, is that many of the items here were activities which occurred outside the home, rather than inside.

7. FACTOR VII: KINSHIP/EMPATHIZER

Six items loaded on this seventh factor, and two separate, but overlapping, themes were represented. The first theme, a kinship component, contained three items which referred to typical patterns of interacting with one's kin. They included phoning (.71), writing letters (.66), and buying gifts (.55). One point of interest was that all these tasks were directed to the male partner's kin, not the kin of the female. Because there is no set criteria for establishing cut-off points to variable loadings, it is very possible that this factor reflects more of the exchange process in just the kinship role. For example if we had chosen .5 as our cut-off criteria, then the only variables which would have loaded would have clearly reflected this role only. Because this study was considered exploratory, this rigourous criteria was not used.

The second, somewhat related theme in this domain was an empathic component. This was illustrated by two items: showing an interest in listening to how the other's day has gone (.45) and offering assistance in clarifying a problem (.49). Harmony in any relationship will certainly depend upon both partners' feeling a sense of support and interest in each other. This may be an offshoot of the therapeutic role.

A potential reason for the association of these two themes on this one factor is offered by Bahr (1976) in his review of the literature on the meaning and practice of kinship responsibilities. At one time these ties included much more sharing of family experiences. In times of need relatives were often the first persons sought to provide support and understanding as well as assistance. This domain could then be tapping that quality of the kinship relations as well.

8. FACTOR VIII: VERBAL EXPRESSION

Only two items loaded on this domain; keeping thoughts and feelings to oneself (-.76) and initiate discussion of problems with the relationship (.63). Both these items clearly reflect the expression of thoughts and feelings rather than the withholding of this information. Parelman (1983) noted a similar domain in her study of emotional intimacy in marriages. In order for intimacy to occur, the channels of communication must be open and couples must feel comfortable enough to bring up innermost thoughts and feelings, or share concerns. Scanzoni & Scanzoni (1976) also described open communication as one component of the expressive domain.

9. FACTOR IX: CHILD INVOLVEMENT

Three items loaded on this final factor; two of them referred specifically to interacting with children (bathing, .79, and playing with, .67). It was not clear how the third item, deciding how to decorate the house (-.57) related to these first two so it was not considered in the interpretation. Radin (1982) suggests that, rather than assume that

interaction with children should fall into two categories, child care and child socialization,at least five different categories could be described, depending on the activity. In this case, both items here describe playful types of parental involvement with their children. This could explain why these tasks were not included with the other child care items.

D. SUMMARY OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR AVERAGED RATINGS

Nine factors emerged from factor analysing the averaged male and female role-sharing data. Each factor could be interpreted meaningfully, and appeared to reflect a different domain of family role-sharing. These factors both reflected and expanded upon the instrumental and expressive domains discussed by Parsons and Bales (1955) and Scanzoni & Scanzoni (1976). The instrumental domain, for example, appears to be more complex than how it is generally conceptualized. This study found that the domestic role may only represent a portion of all that is involved in this area. Frequently the handyman role is not included in discussions of roles, yet it emerged in this study, as well as in two other recent studies of sharing in families (see Nyquist et al., 1985; Bird et al., 1984). Also, the presence of children appears to have an impact on the structure of role-sharing which has been overlooked frequently by researchers in the past. Similar findings arose with respect to the expressive domain. Here, a number of roles were represented ranging from sexual expression and verbal expression to acting in a therapeutic capacity with one's partner.

The fact that these nine independent factors (see Table 11) emerged from the analysis, tells us two things about role sharing. First, role-sharing appears to be more complex than it has been conceptualized in the past. In order to produce a clearer picture of this construct, expressively oriented domains need to be considered along with instrumental task-oriented ones. Second, in future discussions about role sharing, the independence of roles needs to be considered because the pattern of sharing a couple establishes in any one role does not have to resemble the pattern they establish in another role. Thus, it will be important to identify the pattern of sharing which occurs on each role

Table 11

Correlations Among Role-Sharing Domains

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Domestic/Childcare	1.00								
Sexual Expression	-.04								
Decision Making	-.00	.35							
Therapeutic	.23	.02	.02						
Handyman	.04	.08	.16	.09					
Homemaker	.25	-.03	.07	.15	.13				
Kinship	.27	.10	.06	.13	.03	.25			
Verbal Expression	.23	.16	.17	.27	-.00	.08	.26		
Child Involvement	.07	.01	.03	.13	.11	.09	.09	.05	

rather than assume that sharing on one domain automatically leads to sharing on all other domains. Further studies could investigate the roles which appear easiest for couples to share, and why this is so, as well as those where it is more difficult to achieve sharing.

In summary, nine domains emerged in this study as being salient to the structure of role-sharing. Each domain could be interpreted meaningfully, as reflecting some established family role, or component of a family role. Some of the domains that emerged were not predicted, but most were considered to be traditionally established components of family behavior. These domains have expanded our conceptualization of the structure as well as the process of role-sharing.

E. FACTORS OF ROLE-SHARING: MEN AND WOMEN SEPARATELY

Performing separate factor analyses allowed for a comparison of the factor structure between the males and the females in the sample. These analyses were run prior to performing the analysis of the averaged data. Based on an orthogonal factor matching program, the first eight of the nine factors were similar. In most cases the factors which emerged were very similar to the previously described domains. The discussion in this section, then, will highlight the differences and similarities which were found for these analyses rather than presenting descriptions of the two individual factor structures. Tables 12 and 13 list the factor domains from the male and the female analyses.

This discussion will first focus on the similarities in factor structures between the male and female solutions. Six of the factors which emerged were given similar labels because the variables which comprised these factors were almost identical, except for variations in the loadings. The first domain to emerge in both cases was a domestic/childcare domain, and all 10 of the items from the female factor loaded on the male factor. Both these factors integrated domestic with childcare items, and apart from two extra domestic items which loaded on the male domain, the factors were very similar.

The second factor to emerge in both analyses was labelled a sexual expression factor. The seven items which loaded on the male domain also loaded on the female domain. Determining the frequency of sexual contact was an additional item to load on the female analysis, whereas this item did not load on any domain in the male analysis. The frequency of contact was an issue identified by Carlson (1976) and others as a potential area of difference between partners. Overall the male factor and the female factor were very similar.

The third factor to emerge in the male analysis was labelled a decision making/verbal expression factor, did not have a parallel factor in the female analysis, even though this factor was very similar to factor III in the combined analyses.

The fourth factor in the male analysis was a handyman factor, and this factor was almost identical to factor five for women. These factors had six items in common, and both emphasized traditional masculine performance and decision making items. Disciplining children and purchasing insurance were added to this factor in the female analysis, tasks which are also considered male oriented.

A kinship factor emerged fifth for men, and a similar factor emerged as number eight for women. Both sexes emphasized the maintenance of contact with his kin, rather than her kin, although men did include one item to this effect. The variables which loaded on this factor fit the pattern described by Nye et al. (1976), that kinship ties to his relations are maintained much more by the wife than by the husband.

The seventh male factor was identified as a child involvement factor, and this was parallel to the sixth factor to emerge for women. In both of these analyses, these factors were not clearly defined, and they were considered lower order or secondary factors. Although there were items which were similar to both, there were equal numbers of items which bore no resemblance to the central theme of the factor, or to the items on the equivalent female factor. Items which reflected involvement with children in a playful way were common to both factors, however.

The eighth factor to emerge in the male analysis was labelled a therapeutic factor, while this factor emerged third for women. If the order in which factors emerge is taken to be a reflection of the salience of that particular domain to that sex then the difference in ordering of this factor is striking. Both sexes concur on the issues of showing concern and interest in the other person and offering support. They diverge when it comes to providing positive and negative feedback, and raising problems in the relationship. Women included these items but men did not and overall women appeared to emphasize self-disclosure more than men. These items tend to reflect stereotypic differences in verbal expresion between men and women.

Two unique factors emerged in each of the separate analyses. These were similar to factors which emerged in the combined analysis. Factor four, a Homemaker factor for women, turned out to be almost identical to factor six in the combined analyses. Likewise, factor three in the separate male analysis, a decision making/verbal expression factor, bore a resemblance to factor three in the combined sample analysis. In the female analysis, decision making items loaded with other similar items rather than together. For example, decisions about childcare loaded with childcare items, and financial decisions loaded with spending and budgeting issues, whereas for men the act of deciding appeared to be the criteria which caused these items to load together.

A second unique factor emerged for men involving decisions having to do with the planning of a family (deciding upon family size .53, method of birth control .57), as well as the co-ordination of family tasks (i.e., deciding which chores children should do .63, disciplining children .41). No parallel factor emerged in the female analysis. This family planner role is not one which has been discussed in the literature. Intuitively, one would have considered this more likely to emerge in the female analysis rather than the male analysis. This could suggest that men are more thoughtful about issues like family planning and decision making than they have been given credit for in the past. Perhaps the unique domain reflects a shift in male consciousness. This issue was not discussed in the literature

reviewed, so its significance is unclear.

One factor which was unique to the female analysis was factor nine, labelled the suppression of negative feelings. The items in this factor contrasted sharply with the idea of expressiveness and open sharing of thoughts and feelings. These items, due to their negative loadings, suggested just the opposite trend, that feelings of dissatisfaction, and concerns should be kept to oneself. This factor is quite a departure from the traditional behavior attributed to women. The area of expressiveness was also a surprise in the male analysis, as this behavior emerged as a secondary component on two factors (three and four). In the combined analysis, a clear Verbal Expression domain emerged, which contained items from the male and the female factors. However, the variance accounted for by this factor in that analysis was minimal. These findings could possibly be due to the lower reliability of some of the verbal expressive items.

Overall, analysing the male and the female data separately resulted in some notable findings. Similarities were evident among the majority of factors to emerge, and in particular the first two factors were almost identical. For the most part, gender differences did not appear to influence the structures; however, some differences in the areas of decision making, expressiveness, and awareness of women's unique tasks were noted. These unique factors emerged in the combined factor analysis on role-sharing in the sample.

F. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS ON THE STRUCTURE OF ROLE-SHARING

1. Nine factors emerged from factor analysing couples' responses to how instrumental and expressive tasks were shared in their relationship. These factors resembled, in composition, the family roles identified by Nye et al.,(1976).
2. The inter-correlations between these nine factors were minimal, (see Table 11) indicating that the patterns of sharing responsibilities practiced by these couples varried among domains. This finding contradicts the current assumption that role reponsibilities

would be shared in a similar manner (DeFrain, 1975; Haas, 1977; Hoffman, 1963). This finding with respect to the structure of role-sharing receives partial support from the fact that similar multi-domainal structures were also reported by Nyquist et al. (1985), and Bird et al.,(1984). Some relationships between sharing patterns across factors were found however. Sharing on the Decision Making factor was correlated with sharing on the Sexual Expression factor (r= .35) ; however there were no significant relationships between patterns on this first factor and any other factors in this study. Thus sharing decision making does not bring with it equal sharing in other roles for these couples. The Domestic/Childcare factor was correlated significantly with the Therapeutic, Homemaker, Kinship/Empathizer, and Verbal Expression factor (r=.23, .25, .27, & .23 respectively). These factors represent the traditional duties which tend to be performed by housewives in single breadwinner families (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976) and thus it is logical to find them associated with each other. However the magnitude of these correlations is minimal. The Verbal Expression factor was associated with the Domestic/Childcare, Therapeutic, and Child Involvement factors. Again these instrumental and expressive roles have in the past generally been considered the domain of women in relationships and if for no other reason have been associated with each other through traditional ideologies.

3. This study did not find that gender per se significantly affected the structure of role-sharing. That is men's structures and women's structures of role-sharing in this study were more similar than different.

Table 12

Factor Analysis of Female Data

Variables			Factor Loadings
		Factor I Domestic/Child care	
FRS	27	Wash dishes	.68
	48	Pick up after children	.68
	43	Diaper and change children	.67
	21	Vacuum	.65
	19	Cook breakfast	.65
	46	Stay at home with a sick child	.63
	24	Laundry	.63
	37	Get children dressed in the morning	.61
	28	Dust	.53
	20	Cook evening meal	.53
		Factor II Sexual Expression	
FRS	77	Initiate sex	.81
	76	Let partner know they would like to have sex	.76
	78	Decide upon variety of sexual experiences we have together	.62
	83	Determine frequency of sexual contact	.58
	86	Let partner know what pleases them sexually	.52
	57	Decide where to go on vacation	.50
	79	Refuse to have sex	-.48
	81	Bring up concerns about partner's sexual behavior	.46
	85	Express dissatisfaction with current sexual behavior	.44
		Factor III Therapeutic	
FRS	72	Show concern for how the other is feeling	.68
	68	Offer the other personal support	.67
	69	Demonstrate affection spontaneously	.57
	84	Express satisfaction with current sexual behavior	.54
	74	Show an interest in listening to how the other's day has gone	.51
	75	Change their behavior in order to resolve a conflict occurring within the relationship	.44
	47	Discipline children	.43
	62	Decide how to invest money	-.41
	67	Initiate discussions of problems with the relationship	.41
		Factor IV Homemaker	
FRS	26	Shop for groceries	.71
	58	Decide how much money to spend on food	.70
	40	Drive children to activities	.69
	41	Pick children up from activities	.68
	35	Pay bills	.46
	63	Decide what child care arrangements to make	.43

Factor V Handyman

FRS	29 Repair things around the house	.55
	33 Shovel snow	.55
	34 Wash car	.55
	59 Decide how to discipline children	.50
	64 Decide which insurance to purchase	49
	56 Decide which car to buy	.49
	36 Drive the car when we go out together	-.48
	32 Do yardwork	.44

Factor VI Child Involvement

FRS	42 Bath children	.65
	55 Decide how to decorate house	-.59
	45 Play with children in the evening	.55
	73 Change their point of view when we disagree on an issue which affects the relationship	.47
	61 Decide what chores children should do	-.45

Factor VII Uninterpretable

FRS	80 Decide upon the method of birth control	.64
	31 Keep clothes in repair	-.55
	22 Iron	-.54
	54 Phone her relatives to maintain contact	-.52

Factor VIII Kinship

FRS	51 Buy gifts for his relatives	.55
	31 Take out garbage	-.55
	53 Phone his relatives to maintain contact	.47
	65 Decide which friends to entertain	.44
	49 Write letters to his relatives	.41

Factor IX Harmonizer - Suppression of Feelings

FRS	85 Expression dissatisfaction with current sexual behavior	-.59
	70 Keep thoughts and feelings to oneself	.57
	81 Bring up concerns about partner's sexual behavior	-.50
	82 Decide upon the size of our family	.49

Variables which did not load on any factor

FRS	25	Clean bathrooms
	50	Write letters to her relatives
	52	Buy gifts for her relatives
	60	Decide how much money to spend on entertainment
	66	Decide where to live
	71	Offer assistance to partner in clarifying a problem or a concern

Table 13

Factor Analysis of Male Data

Variables			Factor Loadings
		Factor I Domestic/Child care	
MRS	21	Vacuum	.73
	25	Clean bathrooms	.68
	28	Dust	.65
	46	Stay at home with a sick child	.59
	27	Wash dishes	.68
	22	Iron clothes	.56
	48	Pick up after children	.55
	24	Laundry	.51
	37	Get children dressed in the morning	.47
	43	Diaper and change children	.46
	20	Cook evening meal	.42
	19	Cook breakfast	.41
		Factor II Sexual Expression	
MRS	77	Initiate sex	.77
	76	Let partner know they would like to have sex	.74
	86	Let partner know what pleases them sexually	.70
	85	Express dissatisfaction with current sexual behavior	.69
	78	Decide upon sexual experiences	.69
	81	Bring up concerns about partner's sexual behavior	.46
	79	Refuse to have sex	-.48
		Factor III Decision Making	
MRS	65	Decide which friends to entertain	.75
	57	Decide where to go on vacation	.69
	60	Decide how much money to spend on entertainment	.64
	55	Decide how to decorate house	.59
	70	Keep thoughts and feelings to oneself	-.44
	58	Decide how much money to spend on food	.44
	69	Demonstrate affection spontaneously	.40
		Factor IV Handyman	
MRS	33	Shovel snow	.75
	29	Repair things around the house	.73
	34	Wash car	.66
	32	Do yardwork	.55
	36	Drive the car when we go out together	.53
	56	Decide which car to buy	.47
	84	Express satisfaction with current sexual behavior	-.42

Factor V Kinship

MRS	51 Buy gifts for my relatives	.71
	52 Buy gifts for my partner's relatives	.57
	49 Write letters to my relatives	.55
	53 Phone my relatives to maintain contact	.49
	35 Pay bills	.42

Factor VI Chauffeur/Communication

MRS	40 Drive children to activities	.79
	41 Pick children up from activities	.77
	67 Initiate discussions of problems with the relationship	.45
	50 Write letters to her relatives	.45

Factor VII Child Involvement

MRS	63 Decide what child care arrangements to make	.63
	42 Bath children	.54
	45 Play with children in the evening	.47
	62 Decide how to invest money	-.43

Factor VIII Therapeutic

MRS	72 Show concern for how the other is feeling	.58
	74 Show an interest in listening to how the other's day has gone	.56
	68 Offer the other personal support	.52
	71 Offer assistance to partner in clarifying a problem or a concern	.43
	75 Change their behavior in order to resolve a conflict occurring within the relationship	.42

Factor IX Family Decision Making

MRS	61 Decide what chores children should do	.63
	80 Decide upon the method of birth control	.57
	82 Decide upon the size of our family	.53
	47 Discipline children	.41

Variables which did not load on any factor

MRS	23	Keep clothes in repair
	26	Shop for groceries
	31	Take out garbage
	35	Pay bills
	54	Phone her relatives to maintain contact
	59	Decide how to discipline children
	64	Decide which insurance to purchase
	66	Decide where to live
	73	Change their point of view when we disagree on an issue which affects the relationship
	83	Determine frequency of sexual contact

VI. CHAPTER VI - THE EXTENT OF ROLE-SHARING IN THE SAMPLE

A. PURPOSE

The purpose of this chapter is to report the findings on the extent of role-sharing being practised by the couples in the nine domains. The summary estimates of the amount of time and percentage each partner contributes to housework and childcare are also discussed. Several questions were addressed in this phase of the study. How much sharing were couples doing in each of the domains, and, had there been any noticeable shifts in the ways couples were sharing responsibilities for family roles? If sharing was not being practised in a domain then did the division of labor follow traditional sex-role stereotypes? And, finally were any couples sharing the responsibilities equally in all roles? That is, in Haas's (1972) terms were there any "role-sharers".

B. PROCEDURES

The extent of role-sharing was determined from the mean factor scores a couple achieved on each of the domains. These scores could range between 1 and 9. Mean factor scores lower than 4 indicated the male partner was doing more then the female partner in that domain; means above 6 meant the opposite. A mean score between 4 and 6 was interpreted as meaning that the couple shared labor in that domain roughly equally.

In order to understand which sex was more responsible for the performance of individual tasks within a domain, the sample means for that task were examined. The range of scores (1 to 9) were interpreted in the same way. Here, as well, if a mean score fell below 4, or above 6, that task was being performed more frequently by one sex then the other.

A secondary thrust in this study had to do with the relationship between satisfaction and role enactment. Satisfaction in this study was viewed as an outcome of the amount of involvement one had, or one's partner had in any of the domains. It was

hypothesized that the more one had sole responsibility for task performance, the less satisfied one would feel with the sharing arrangements in that particular role. Simple Pearson correlations were performed to determine the type of relationship which existed between satisfaction and task performance. The results of the analysis of this relationship are discussed after the sections on role-sharing in the nine domains.

C. EXTENT OF SHARING OF HOUSEWORK AND CHILDCARE

In the initial planning stages of the study, it was decided to assess the relative time and percent contributions of each partner in housework and childcare. Self-reports as well as estimates from one's partner were gathered. These reports correlated highly with the factor means on the domestic/childcare domain which emerged (i.e. housework percent for men: r = .71, for women: r = .72; childcare percent for men: r = .65, for women: r = . 46). As anticipated these summary estimates are measuring similar aspects of this domain, simply assessed in a different manner.

1. GLOBAL PERCENT MEASURES OF SHARING OF HOUSEWORK AND CHILDCARE

The estimates of each partner's contribution to housework and childcare are presented in Table 14. There appears to be agreement among the sample that in at least 75% of the relationships the male does less than 40% of the housework while the female performs 60% or more of these chores in approximately 70% of the relationships. Slightly more men then women (i.e. 22% vs 18%) thought that this role was being shared equally.

The estimates also revealed that, on the average, in over 80% of the relationships men perform less than 40% of the childcare. However, both sexes thought that in only half of the relationships was the female responsible for more then 60% of the childcare. More women then men think that the duties in this role are being equally shared (i.e. 34.9% women vs. 11.8% men).

No obvious sex-biases were revealed in these estimations of percent contributions, in fact there was a high degree of agreement between partners as to the relative contributions made by each sex.

2. GLOBAL MEASURES OF TIME SHARING OF HOUSEWORK AND CHILDCARE

Based on the summary estimates of the amount of time each partner contributes to housework and childcare, one can see from figure 1 that for this sample women spend more time performing these tasks then their partners do. On the average, women spend 1 hour and 49 minutes more per day then men in performing domestic tasks, and approximately 3 hours more per day performing childcare tasks (both significant at the .01 level). This pattern occurres whether hired or outside help is present or not. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate this point clearly. One surprising finding was that the use of outside or hired help was associated with a slight increase in the amount of time men spend performing housework and childcare. This difference was not statistically significant, however. For women, the presence of help decreases her time; however, only for childcare is the decrease significant (t of 2.04; $p = .04$).

Both sexes reported spending more time performing childcare duties vs. housework tasks. On the average women reported spending 5.02 hours per day in this area vs 2.59 hours in housework. Men's time was 2.03 and 1.10 hours per day respectively. Employment status affects these levels in the expected ways (see Table 15). The more time a woman spends employed outside the home the less time she can spend doing these tasks. In terms of the totals for family work, ie., housework time plus childcare time, the differences between women who were employed full-time, and those employed part-time or at home by choice were significant. Differences between women employed part-time and those who were at home by choice were not significant, however ($p = .054$). Men's time contributions in these areas did vary in relation to their partners' employment status but these differences in family work time were not significant. Table 15 shows the variations in time

Table 14

Self and Partner's Estimates of Housework and Childcare Contributions

	Male Housework Contribution		Female Housework Contribution	
	Rated by Men	Rated by Women	Rated by Men	Rated by Women
Perform less than 40%	74.8	88.3	10.8	7.8
Perform between 40%–60%	22.3	7.2	25.2	18.4
Perform more than 60%	2.9	4.5	64.0	74.8
	Male Childcare Contributions		Female Childcare Contributions	
	Rated by Men	Rated by Women	Rated by Men	Rated by Women
Perform less than 40%	83.3	79.4	24.8	13.6
Perform between 40%–60%	11.8	16.9	24.7	34.9
Perform more than 60%	4.9	3.7	51.5	51.5

Table 15

Division of Labor in Relation to Women's Employment Status

		Women's Share			Men's Share		
		Full Time	Part Time	At home by choice	Full Time	Part Time	At home by choice
Percent	Housework Percent	59.2	76.4	87.7	30.3	24.8	16.9
	Childcare Percent	53.5	64.8	78.0	30.6	28.8	21.7
Time	Housework Hours per day	1.55	3.31	3.31	1.23	1.01	.49
	Childcare Hours per day	2.37	4.36	7.24	1.59	1.46	1.49
	Total Family Work Hours per day	4.32	8.07	10.55	3.22	2.47	2.38

Table 16
Distribution of Sharing

	Proportion of Sample Who Share Equally	Females More Responsible	Males More Responsible
Domestic Childcare	26.2	71.8	1.9
Sexual	60.2	5.8	34.0
Decision-Making	93.2	3.9	2.9
Therapeutic	85.5	5.8	8.7
Handyman	15.5	1.0	83.5
Homemaker	35.9	49.5	14.6
Kinship	32.5	39.8	13.6
Verbal Expression	47.6	39.8	13.6
Child Involvement	78.7	19.4	1.9

and percent contributions to housework and childcare by each sex in relation to the females employment status.

D. EXTENT OF SHARING IN THE NINE DOMAINS

Frequency distributions of the mean factor scores on each of the nine domains were examined to determine the extent to which overall task responsibilities were being shared roughly equally by the couples. Table 16 presents the percentage of couples which practised equal sharing in each domain along with the percent of couples where the female partner or the male partner contributed more to the enactment of tasks in the domain. The figures 3 to 11 show the how the division of responsibilities were distributed in each domain for the couples.

1. DOMESTIC/CHILDCARE

For the most part the couples in this study were sharing responsibilities for tasks in the domestic childcare division in a traditional fashion. In almost 72% of the couples the women had the major responsibility for carrying out these domestic and childcare tasks. However, slightly more then a quarter of the couples shared equally in the overall performance of these tasks and in a small minority of the relationships (less then 2%) men were more involved in this domain then their partners were.

The pattern revealed through this means of assessment was consistent with the findings gathered from the global percent and time estimates in this domain. All these measures revealed that the female was responsible for performing approximately 60% or more housework in approximately 70% of the households, as well as performing 60% of the childcare in 50% of the households. Averaging the male and female estimations on how many couples believe that they are sharing housework and childcare equally in order to compare with the the 26% figure derived here are also consistent i.e. (20% believe that housework is shared equally and 23% believe that childcare is shared equally). The number

Fig. 1

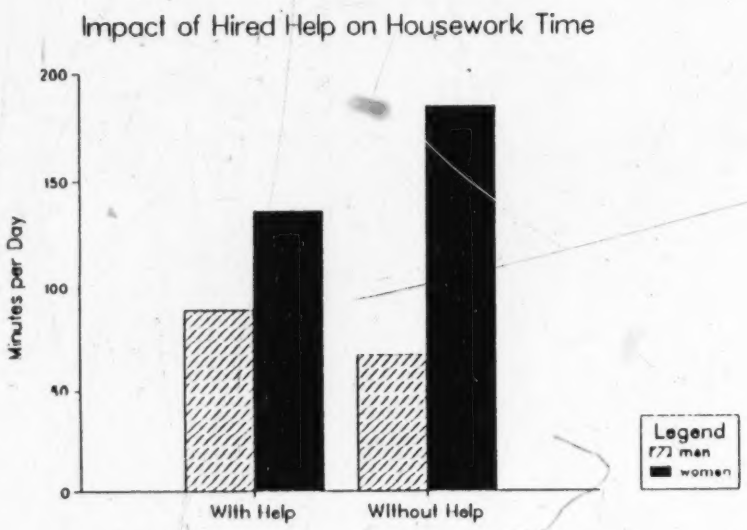

Impact of Hired Help on Housework Time
Minutes per Day
200
150
100
50
0
With Help
Without Help
Legend
men
women

Fig. 2

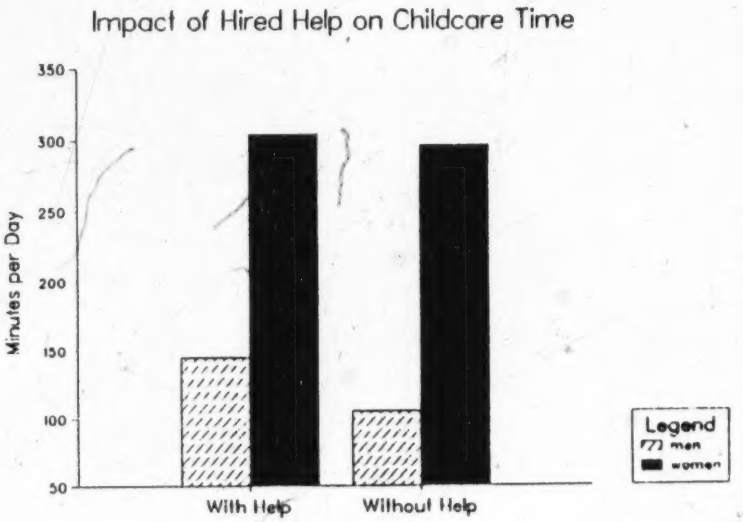

Impact of Hired Help on Childcare Time
Minutes per Day
350
300
250
200
150
100
50
With Help
Without Help
Legend
men
women

Fig. 3

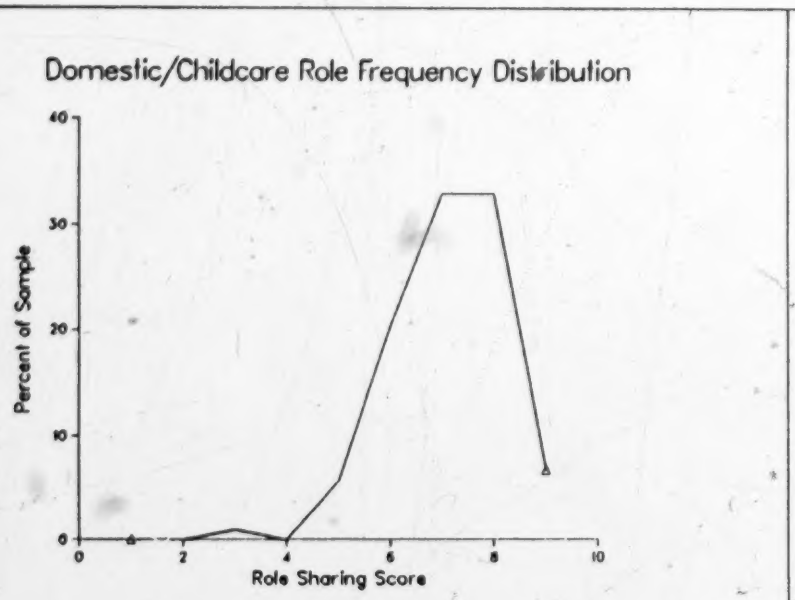
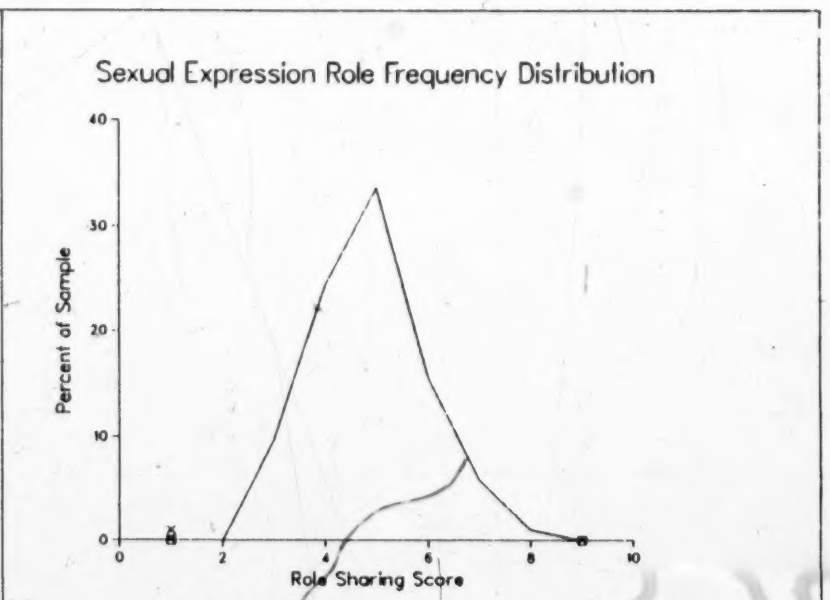


Fig. 4



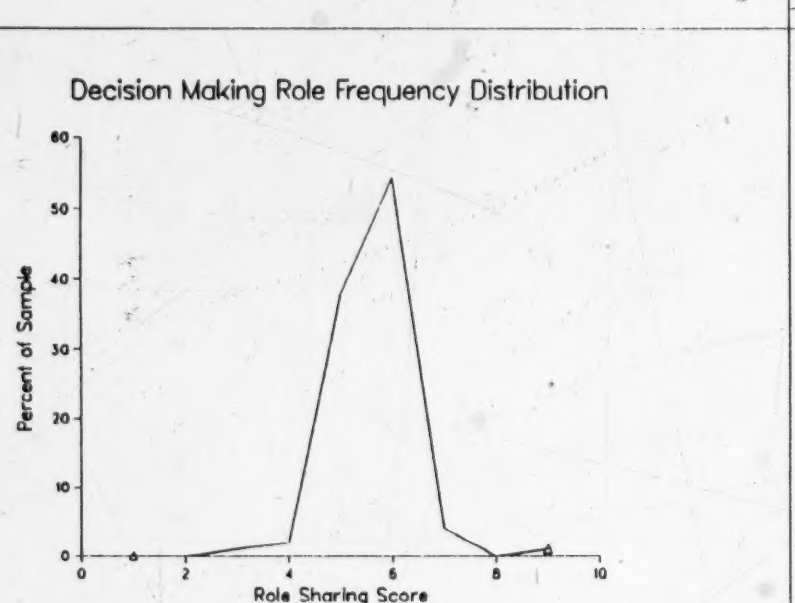


Fig. 5

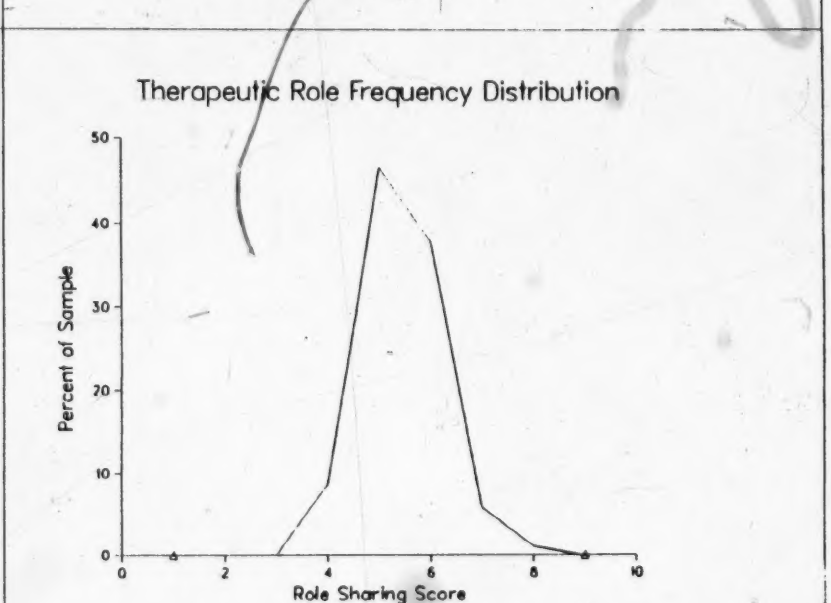


Fig. 6

Fig. 7

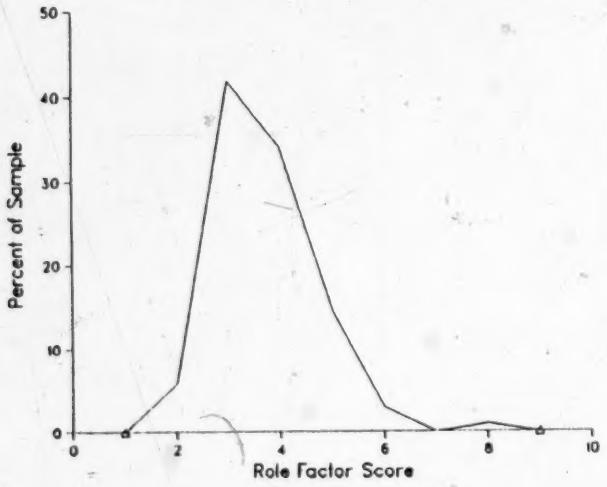
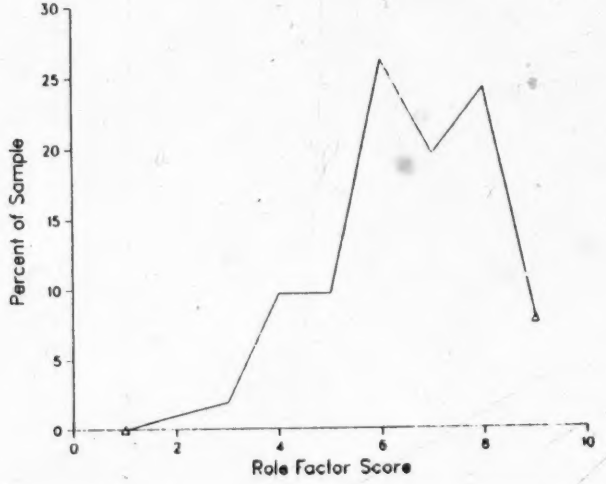


Fig. 8



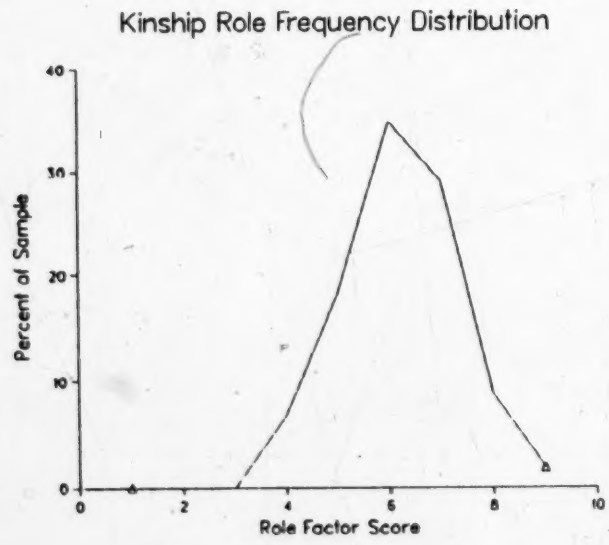


Fig. 9

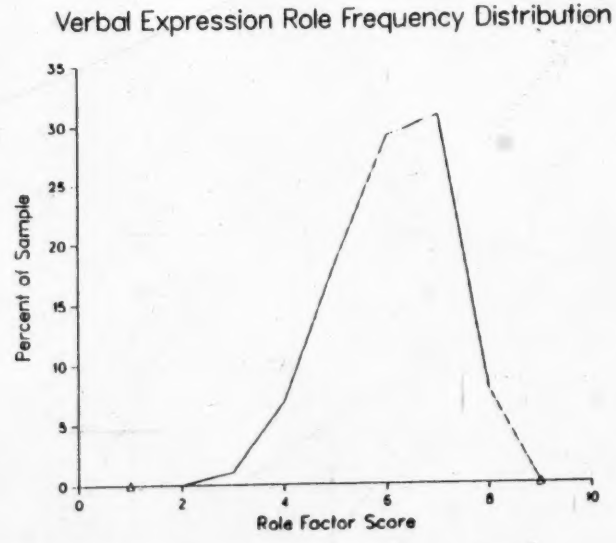


Fig. 10

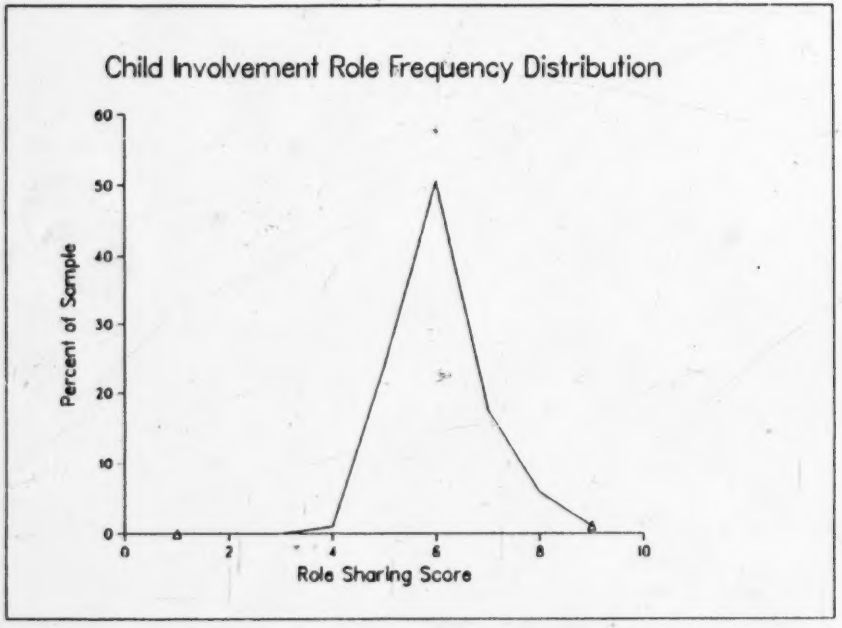

Child Involvement Role Frequency Distribution
Percent of Sample
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
0
2
4
6
8
10
Role Sharing Score

Fig. 11

of households where the male assumes major responsibility is similar across both percent measures also. These range from 1.9% to 4.9%.

One factor which did affect the division of labor between partners was the employment status of the woman. As previous researchers have noted sometimes (Safilios Rothschild, 1970) the division of labor becomes more equitable when women are employed on a full-time basis outside the home (mean of 6.1), as opposed to her being employed on a part-time basis ($x = 6.7$), or being at home by choice ($x = 7.3$). The data in this study suggests that in the Domestic/Childcare factor a woman's employment status is associated with a more equitable sharing of the labor in this area. These differences between full-time employed women and those at home by choice were statistically significant.

Of the tasks which comprised this domain, women were more responsible for cooking the evening meal, doing the laundry, cleaning the bathrooms, dusting, and staying at home when their child was sick then their partners were. There were no instances where men dominated the enactment of any tasks within this division.

2. SEXUAL EXPRESSION

Approximately 60% of the couples in this study are sharing responsibilities equally within this domain. In the case of couples who are not sharing equally, males were found to be more active in this domain then females were (34% to 6%). Nye et al. (1976) felt that all the couples in their study were sharing equally in the enactment of this role due to the nature of the tasks involved. This was not the case in this study, perhaps due to the same reason, i.e., the nature of the tasks used to assess performance in this area.

Both sexes are in agreement that men more then women take a more active role in initiating and asking for sexual contact, as well as in deciding upon the variety of sexual experiences that the couple will experience. Men's domination of some of these tasks had been found by Carlson (1976) previously. Apart from these tasks, the remainder which

comprised the domain were being shared equally.

3. DECISION MAKING DIMENSION

Surprisingly, over 93% of the couples in this study were found to have equal influence when it came to making decisions which affected their relationship. The fact that so many couples fit this category is cause for speculation, as previous research has found a tendency for men to dominate this area (Nye et al., 1976).

In examining the patterns of responses for the decision making questions, little variability was found in the sample. Other researchers have noted that, when faced with choices concerning a trait which can be seen as socially undesirable (i.e. influence), respondents tend to shy away from taking extreme positions (Larson, 1974; Turk & Bell, 1972). Agreement concerning mutual give-and-take in decision making has been found to be generally easier to obtain then has agreement over egalitarian practises in other family roles (Larson, 1974). Since the intra-class correlations for most of the tasks were fairly high ranging from .3 to .5 we can conclude that the perception of shared influence in these decisions appears to be shared by both partners.

The only decisions which were dominated by one sex or the other were decisions about financial matters, and about birth control. As could be expected, men were cited by both sexes as having more influence in the former, while women had more influence in the latter. The tendency here may be for individuals to dominate decision making only in a few traditional tasks. All other decisions within this domain were reported to be shared equally.

4. THERAPEUTIC DIMENSION

Over 85% of the couples in the study showed equal sharing of the tasks in this domain. Men were not found to be less involved in showing concern, supporting, and expressing their feelings in their relationships then their partners were, as had been

expected. In relation to the individual tasks which comprised, and were relevant to, the main theme of this domain there were no sex differences.

5. HANDYMAN

This was the domain that was shared by the fewest couples in the study (15.5%). The data suggests that few women are crossing over to accept major responsibility for performing tasks in this domain, while men still retain their control in this area. This finding is congruent with those of previous researchers (Haas, 1977; Stafford et al., 1977). It is interesting that this domination would continue despite the fact that men do appear to be increasing their involvement in other domains while maintaining their level here. Every task in this domain was reported by both sexes to be dominated by the man of the house.

6. HOMEMAKER

The homemaker role was shared by approximately 36% of the couples in the study. For most couples, however, it was the woman who enacted most of the responsibilities in this domain (49.5%). Women did the marketing and childcare tasks more then their partners did, but the chauffering and bill-paying tasks were jointly divided between partners.

7. KINSHIP/EMPATHIZER

A little over half the couples in the study jointly share in the performance of tasks within this domain (52.5%). For the remaining couples, women were reported to be enacting more of the communication tasks with his his relatives than he was, i.e. (39.8% to 8.7%). Sex differences were apparent in some tasks. Writing to, or buying gifts for, his relatives were performed more often by women, while men were more likely to maintain contact with their relatives by phoning. This finding is the only one which is in contrast to that of Nye et al, (1976).

8. VERBAL EXPRESSION

Slightly less then half the couples (47.6%) in the study were found to be sharing responsibilities in this domain rather evenly. In those couples where joint participation was not occuring, the female partner was usually the one more involved in raising issues which were pertinant to the relationship (39% vs. 8%). However sex differences were not found on a task-by-task performance in this domain.

9. CHILD INVOLVEMENT

Slightly more then three-quarters of the couples (78.7%) jointly shared in performing the tasks in this domain. While this number seemed unusually high, it may not be, considering that other researchers (Russell & Radin, 1982) have found that men tend to spend much more time playing with their children then they do in all other tasks. Task performance means showed that men had higher mean levels then women did for playing with their children, but the opposite situation was found for bathing children.

10. SUMMARY

In summary than, a high percentage of couples in this study are sharing responsibilities fairly equally in each domain. This percent ranges from a high of 93.2% in the decision-making domain to a low of 15.5% in the handyman domain. A little more then a quarter of the couples are sharing task responsibilities in the domestic/childcare domain. Overall, the numbers of couples who are sharing equally is greater in the expressive domains then in the instrumental ones.

Some traditional sharing patterns become evident through examining the overall trends in these instrumental domains. Women have more responsibility for task performance in the domestic/childcare domain (71.8%) and in the homemaker domain (49.5%) while men are still largely responsible for performing the handyman functions (83.5%).

In 34% of the couples, men were reported to be more responsible for task performance in the sexual domain then women were, if the couple was not sharing responsibilities equally as 60 % were. Likewise, women were more involved in maintaining contact with his relatives (39 %), and exchanging ideas and feelings then men were (39 % vs 13 %) if an equal sharing pattern was not being practised by a couple in these two areas. Similar trends have been noted previously by Nye et al. (1976), however the percentages of couples who are sharing task responsibilities equally in the individual domains is much greater then Nye's (1976) findings.

E. OVERALL SHARING IN THE NINE DOMAINS

Of interest in the study was whether any of the couples would qualify as being full role-sharers. That is, would they share equally across all domains? Table 17 illustrates the number of couples in the study, and the domains in which they were sharing.

Table 17

Number of Domains Shared Equally	Numbers of Couples	Percent of Total Sample
1	1	.9
2	3	2.9
3	8	7.7
4	23	22.3
5	33	32.0
6	20	19.4
7	10	9.7
8	4	3.8
9	1	.9

The distribution of couples by numbers of domains shared is quite symmetrical, with most couples sharing in five domains. Almost 75% of the sample are sharing between

four and six domains, while at either end, only one couple shares on all nine or on only one domain. From the previous data, we know that the three domains least likely to be shared are, in order: handyman, domestic/childcare, and homemaker. Those most likely to be shared are decision making, therapeutic, child involvement, and sexual expression.

F. SATISFACTION AND ROLE-SHARING

A secondary interest in this study related to the impact one's involvement in sharing roles had upon one's level of satisfaction with this arrangement. It was proposed that high degrees of involvement by either partner would lead to feelings of dissatisfaction in that person. The results of the simple correlations between levels of satisfaction with housework and childcare division of labor, and the participation levels of both partners, are presented in Table 18 and Table 19. In both tables, data is presented which reflects one's own rating of his/her involvement as well as one's partner's ratings of involvement. Satisfaction level was initially coded 1 to 4, with representing very satisfied and 4 very dissatisfied. Because this was confusing when trying to interpret the data, it was decided to reverse the signs of all the correlations in order to facilitate interpretation. A high score now refers to a very satisfied rating.

Several significant ($p = .01$) positive relationships occured between women's level of satisfaction, and the amount of housework (both percent and time) males performed. Men's satisfaction did not vary significantly with either their involvement or that of their partner. Also, a significant ($p .01$) inverse relationship was found between the percent of housework she performed and her level of satisfaction. Significant relationships did not occur with respect to her time in this area, nor were significant relationships found with respect to men's satisfaction level and their partners' involvement.

The greater the woman's share in the domestic/childcare domain, the more dissatisfied she was with this division of labor. The relationship between men's satisfaction level and the contributions they make to this domain was not significant.

Table 18

Satisfaction with Housework Sharing

Variable	Rater	Male Satisfaction with Housework	Female Satisfaction with Housework
Male Housework Percent	Male	.03	.31++
	Female	.11	.34++
Male Housework Time	Male	.05	.13
	Female	.15	.23++
Female Housework Percent	Male	−.06	−.24++
	Female	−.05	−.29++
Female Housework Time	Male	−.13	−.05
	Female	−.05	−.11++

+++ significant at .001 level
++ significant at .01 level
+ significant at .05 level

Table 19

Satisfaction with Childcare Sharing

Variable	Rater	Male's Satisfaction with Childcare	Female's Satisfaction with Childcare
Male Childcare Percent	Male	.19	.23++
	Female	.13	.46+++
Male Childcare Time	Male	.15	.23++
	Female	.19	.27++
Female Childcare Percent	Male	−.10	−.25++
	Female	−.17	−.41+++
Female Childcare Time	Male	−.04	−.13
	Female	−.05	−.11
Child Involvement Role		−.18+	−.29+++

+++ significant at .001 level
++ significant at .01 level
+ significant at .05 level

In relation to the childcare tasks, a similar pattern emerges for both sexes. Women were more satisfied the more their partner contributed, and less so as their level of involvement rose. Again, none of the relationships between satisfaction and participation were statistically significant for men, excepting the child involvement domain. Here, a significant ($r = -.18$, $p = .05$) inverse relationship occurred, suggesting that as their involvement in this domain increases, they are more satisfied . This is not surprising considering that this domain refers to the amount of time spent playing with one's children. In the literature, playing with children has been seen as the activity which men do more of with their children then any other child involvement task. Also, although the other childcare/satisfaction relationships were not statistically significant, they did suggest that men's satisfaction increased as their involvement increased. One comment frequently made by the men in this study was that they wished that they could spend more time with their children, but work and other commitments limited this.

G. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS ON THE EXTENT OF ROLE-SHARING

1. For the couples in this study the women are still spending more time and performing a substantially greater portion of housework and childcare then their partners are performing.
2. Employment status was associated with a significant lowering of the women's share of family work. Full-time employed women performed significantly less family work then women who were employed part-time or women who were at home by choice.
3. Women's employment status was associated with higher levels of family work being performed by spouses; however, the only significant difference occurred in terms of the amount of time men contributed to childcare. In couples where both partners worked full-time, men spent significantly more time in childcare then did those men who were associated with spouses who worked part-time or were at home by choice.

4. The proportions of couples who are sharing roles equally appears greater now then what was found in samples from ten years ago (see Nye et al., 1976). Even so, the bulk of task enactment still falls on the woman's shoulders.
5. In traditional family roles like the domestic and childcare roles, or the handyman role, stereotyped patterns of enactment still prevail.
6. In this study more then 50% of the sample were sharing equally in the decision making, therapeutic, child involvement, and sexual expression roles. These percentages are much greater then expected.
7. For women in this study there was a definite relationship between their satisfaction with the division of labor in their relationship and the amount of family work they and their partner performed. No relationship was found between satisfaction and amount of family work performed for the men in this study. As her share increases, or her partner's share decreases, the women in this study experience more dissatisfaction. For the couples in this study, this contradicts the findings of opinion polls which suggest that women do not want men to increase their involvement in family work. This could be unique to this sample however.

VII. CHAPTER VII THE ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE SHARING

A. PROCEDURES

The third purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between selected demographic and attitudinal variables and the division of labor. Simple correlations were run between all the antecedent variables and the nine role-sharing scores derived from the averaged factor analysis. Each of these factor scores then became a criterion variable in a forward multiple regression equation.

The attitudinal variables used in the correlational analysis were: male's attitude towards both partners having a right to share in the breadwinner role, male's attitude towards both partners having an obligation to share in the breadwinner role, and women's attitude towards sharing in the breadwinner role. In all three of these variables high scores indicated disagreement with the idea that both partners had an equal right to or obligation to share in the breadwinner role. Male and female sex role attitudes, and male and female career role salience scores were also used. For the first two variables, high scores indicated a traditional attitude, while in the second two variables a high score meant that the individual placed a high value on having a career as opposed to being family oriented.

The demographic variables which were used in the correlational analysis were the monthly income differences between partners', the education levels of both partners, the ages of both partners, and the duration of the relationship. In cases where data were obtained from both partner's (i.e. income difference and duration of relationship), only one estimate was used in any of the multiple regression equations because of the substantial correlation between the two estimates. In these instances the estimate which had the greatest simple correlation was chosen.

The same procedures were also employed to identify the major correlates of the amount of time each partner reported spending in housework and childcare, as well as the percent contributions each partner estimated they made to these two areas. The estimates

for each sex were averaged (i.e.male estimate of his percent plus the female's estimate of his percent), and each of these averaged estimations then became the criterion variable in a multiple regression equations.

The SPSSX procedures discussed by Nye et al (1983) for performing forward stepwise multiple regression were employed in all cases. In this method, variables enter the equation one at a time. At each step, the independent variables are examined, and the variable with the smallest probability of F value is entered. The P/W value (probability of F to enter) was adjusted to 0.10 from the default value of 0.05. It should be noted that a tremendous amount of data were generated by these procedures. In order to spare the reader from endless documentation and interpretation, only the findings which showed statistical significance will be described in this chapter.

The chapter is organized in the following way – first the findings on the relationship between the antecedents and the percent and the time contribution each partner makes to housework are presented. Then the results with respect to childcare are presented. Then, the relationships found between the domains of role sharing and the antecedents are examined. In each case, the simple correlations are reported, followed by the results of the regression analysis.

B. ANTECEDENTS OF SHARING OF HOUSEWORK

1. HOUSEWORK PERCENT ESTIMATES

a. Simple Correlations with Estimates of Male Housework

The simple correlations between the antecedent variables and the housework percent estimates are presented in Table 20. Table 20 also illustrates the fact that, generally, the correlations are replicated when the male's housework percent as reported by the males is used as the dependent variable or when the female's reports of the male's housework percent is used as the dependent variable. In all instances the

Table 20

Simple Correlations of Antecedent Variables with Housework Estimates

Antecedents	Male Percent Rater		Female Percent Rater		Male Time Rater		Female Time Rater	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Breadwinner Attitudes								
Male–Rights	-.17	-.16	.23*	.18	-.17	-.01	.23*	.21
Male–Obligations	-.05	-.05	.15	.07	-.09	.09	.10	.25*
Female	-.07	-.11	.11	.12	-.09	-.00	.01	.07
Sex Role Attitudes								
Male	-.16	-.24*	.23*	.25*	-.17	-.12	.14	.27*
Female	-.17	-.29*	.21	.29*	-.17	-.29*	.11	.13
Career Role Salience								
Male	-.19	-.07	.13	.04	-.11	-.04	.07	.03
Female	.11	.13	-.13	-.20	.00	.09	-.10	.03
Monthly Income Difference								
Male	-.51*	-.51*	.48*	.47*	-.26*	-.19	.47*	.47*
Female	-.51*	-.53*	.45*	.44*	-.23	-.16	.47*	.47*
Education Level								
Male	.07	.00	-.15	-.13	.14	-.02	-.13	-.13
Female	.18	.17	-.34*	-.31**	.19	.14	-.06	-.12
Age								
Male	-.02	-.04	-.17	-.13	.04	.07	.03	.04
Female	-.03	-.07	-.21	-.13	.11	.03	.05	.00
Duration of Relationship								
Male	-.11	-.11	-.09	-.09	.03	.04	.08	.15
Female	-.12	-.11	-.08	-.07	.01	.03	.08	.15

direction of the correlation is replicated, although the size of the correlation varries. As the monthly income difference increases in the males favor, the less housework they perform ($r = -.51$, $p \leq .000$). If either partner possessed a traditional attitude towards sex-roles (males -24; female $-.29$, $p \leq .01$) than the amount of housework that the male partner performed was less.

b. Simple Correlations with Estimates of Female Housework

It was found that women performed more housework if either partner possessed a traditional attitude towards sex roles ($n = .25$ for men, $p \leq .01$; $n = .29$ for women $p \leq .01$); or as the monthly income difference increased in the man's favor ($r = .4$ for men $p \leq .001$; $r = .44$ for women $p \leq .001$). Her level decreased as her education increased ($r = -.31$ $p \leq .01$). In addition, the amount of housework performed by the female partner was greater if her partner disagreed with the idea that both partners have a right to share in the breadwinner role ($r = .23$ $p \leq .01$). Once again, these relationships were replicated by comparison to the male partner's estimates of the female's housework percent.

c. Multiple Correlation with Averaged Estimates

In order to understand how the income difference between couples influenced housework percentages, two dummy variables were constructed. The dummy variables were employed in all multiple regression equations where income difference correlated significantly with the criterion variable. The purpose was to determine what variance (if any) would be explained by income difference after the dummy variables were forced into the equation. The purpose of the dummy variables was to partial out those effects of the income difference which arose simply because the male worked more hours outside the home than his partner, and consequently earned more income. Unfortunately, actual hours spent in outside employment which would have offered a more direct way of testing for this effect was not gathered. Instead, two dummy

Table 22

Regression on Housework Percent Sharing

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
1. Women's percent				
D1	-.37	-3.8+++	.23	.00
D2	.21	2.1+	.31	.08
Female education level	-.26	-2.76++	.37	.06
2. Men's percent				
D1	.07	.72	.08	.00
D2	-.01	-.15	.13	.05
Monthly income difference	-.44	-3.89+++	.27	.14
Female Sex-role Attitude	-.18	-1.8	.30	.03

Table 23

Regression on Housework Time Sharing

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
1. Women's time				
D1	.01	.12	.02	.00
D2	.01	.08	.03	.01
Monthly income difference	.35	2.81++	.12	.09
2. Men's Time				
D1	.14	1.26	.04	.00
D2	-.15	-1.35	.06	.02

variables (D1 and D2) were constructed based on the employment statuses of the women in the study, that is whether. she was at home full-time, or worked full-time or part-time. The male partners of these women all worked full-time.

In examining the male's housework percent, the two dummy variables accounted for 13% of the variance in male's percent contribution. Income difference however, explained a further 14% of the variance and the female partners sex role attitude explained another 3%. In total, 30% of the variance in the male's behavior was explained by these variables (see table 22). This suggests that income difference does have an influence on the amount of housework men perform, as does the female's attitude.

The multiple regression on the averaged women's housework percent contribution explained 37% of the variance found in this role. The two dummy variables accounted for 31% of this variance, while her level of education contributed to explaining the remaining 6%. Thus outside employment explained the largest differences in the percentage of housework women performed, however her level of education also effects her amount.

2. HOUSEWORK TIME ESTIMATES

a. Simple Correlations with Estimate of Male Time

Monthly income difference showed a significant correlation with the male's estimates of their time spent in housework while the female's sex role attitude correlated significantly with the woman's perception of the amount of time men contributed to housework ($r = -.26$, $p \leq .01$ for the former and $r = -.29$ for the latter). These results were replicated with the opposite partner's estimates, however the magnitude of the correlations was less. As the income difference increased in the male's favor, the amount of time he spent performing housework decreased. His time also decreased in relation to the traditionality of his partner's attitude towards sex-roles.

b. Simple Correlations with Estimate of Female Time

Monthly income difference was also a significant contributing factor in understanding the variation in women's time in the domestic role. Regardless of which sex rated the time the woman spent doing housework, the finding was that the greater the income difference was in the man's favor the more a woman's time increased ($r=.47$, $p\leq.001$). Other factors which contributed to a woman spending more time in this role were: if the male held a traditional attitude towards sex roles ($r=.27$, $p\leq.01$), or felt strongly against the idea that both partners have either an equal obligation to share in the breadwinner function ($r=.25$, $p\leq.01$) or a right to share in this role ($r=.23$, $p\leq.01$).

c. Multiple Correlation with Averaged Estimates

The multiple correlation using the female's time explained 13% of the total variance. Approximately 1% of this variance was explained by the dummy variables. A further 12% of this variance was explained by the income difference between partners. Only 7% of this variance in the male's time in housework could be explained and all of this was explained by the two dummy variables. It appears that in this sample anyway, women's time performing housework can be associated with economic resources in the family to some degree, over and above that which is accounted for by outside work time. Men's time was not effected by these resources.

C. ANTECEDENTS OF SHARING OF CHILDCARE

1. CHILDCARE PERCENT ESTIMATES

a. Simple Correlations with Estimates of Male Percent

Table 21 shows the simple correlations between the antecedents and the male and female estimates of time and percent contributions to childcare. The percent

Table 21
Simple Correlations of Antecedents with Childcare Estimates

Antecedents	Male Percent Rater		Female Percent Rater		Male Time Rater		Female Time Rater	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Breadwinner Attitudes								
Male–Rights	-.11	-.19	.23*	.23*	-.17	-.41	.10	.21
Male–Obligations	.00	-.05	.26*	.13	.07	.17	.29**	.43**
Female	.02	-.06	.19	.17	-.03	.10	.14	.31*
Sex Role Attitudes								
Male	-.11	-.24*	.21	.16	-.11	-.09	.17	.26*
Female	-.15	-.28*	.17	.30**	-.10	-.12	.11	.19
Career Role Salience								
Male	-.25*	-.15	.09	.10	-.12	-.26**	.12	.00
Female	.03	.22	.01	-.19	-.01	.00	-.23**	-.25*
Monthly Income Difference								
Male	-.55*	-.53*	.40*	.41*	-.30*	-.32*	.41**	.31*
Female	-.56*	-.53*	.46*	.48*	-.27*	-.32*	.45*	.33*
Education Level								
Male	.01	.05	-.07	-.11	.10	-.01	-.06	-.03
Female	.07	.18	-.13	-.17	.17	.13	-.19	-.19
Age								
Male	-.07	-.05	-.07	.03	-.33**	-.27*	-.33*	-.36*
Female	-.03	-.07	-.25*	-.06	-.31*	-.27*	-.41*	-.49*
Duration of Relationship								
Male	.03	-.04	-.13	.00	-.27*	-.25*	-.35*	-.35*
Female	.02	-.05	-.12	.00	-.29*	-.26*	-.33*	-.34*

contribution men reported they made to childcare decreased as the income difference increased ($r = -.55$, $p \leq .001$). Using just the male's perceptions of their percent, it appeared that their percent decreased as they placed more importance upon having a career ($r = -.25$, $p \leq .01$). Woman perceived that if either partner held a traditional attitudes towards sex roles ($r = -.24$, $p \leq .01$ for males, $r = -.28$, $p \leq .01$ for females) then males did less childcare.

b. Simple Correlations with Estimate of Female Percent

A combination of resource and attitudinal variables correlated with the percent of childcare tasks women performed. Income difference was highly significant ($r = 48$ in women's eyes and $r = .46$ with male's estimate, $p \leq .001$). Her attitude towards sex roles ($r = .30$, $p \leq .01$) was significant with her own estimate of her percent, while when men estimated her percent contributions, her age emerged as a significant factor ($r = -25$, $p \leq .01$). Again, these relationships were replicated, but to a lesser magnitude. The attitude of the male towards sharing in the breadwinner role was also correlated significantly with woman's contribution. The less amenable the male was towards both partners as having either an equal right or obligation to participate in sharing of this role, the greater was the woman's share of work in the childcare role. ($r = .23$ for rights; $r = .26$ for obligations, both $p \leq .01$)

c. Multiple Correlations

Table 24 reports the multiple correlations run between the antecedent variables and the percent of childcare women perform. Approximately 23% of the variation in woman's work load in childcare was accounted for by the dummy variables. No other variables contributed above these.

For males, approximately 28% of men's variation in this role was explained, 13% of it by the dummy variables. However, income difference contributed another 12%. The male's attitude towards the career role also added another 3% of variance.

Thus, economic resources plus role attitude influence the percent contribution made by males to childcare over and above that which is accounted for by partner's outside employment time, while for women, her time in outside employment appears to best explain variations in her childcare percent.

2. CHILDCARE TIME ESTIMATES

a. Simple Correlations with Estimates of Male Time

Table 21 reports the simple correlations between the antecedent variables and the male and female estimates of time spent in childcare. Almost all the correlations with this area were replicated both in magnitude and in direction when the partner's estimates of childcare were used. The time men contribute to the childcare role was negatively influenced by their age ($r=-33$, $p\leq.01$), the duration of the relationship ($r=-27$, $p\leq01$) and the income difference ($r=-30$, $p\leq.01$). In addition, women perceived that the importance a man placed upon his career also significantly lowered his time in this role ($r=-26$, $p\leq.01$).

b. Simple Correlations with Estimates of Female Time

The time women spend in childcare was related to almost all of the predictor variables. As with the male time estimates, most of the correlations were replicated by both partner's estimates of women's time in childcare. Age and duration of the relationship ($r=-.49$, $p\leq.001$, $r=-35$, $p\leq.01$ respectively) indicated that as these increased, the time she spent decreased. If either partner held a traditional attitude towards: sharing in the provider role (women $r=.31$; men $r=.43$), or the male had a traditional attitude towards sex roles ($r=.26$), or the woman placed little value on having a career ($r=-.25$) than her time in this role increased. Once again, income difference was also positively related to woman's involvement ($r=.33$).

Table 24

Regression on Childcare Percent Sharing

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
1. Women's percent				
D1	−.32	−3.06++	.18	.00
D2	.26	2.46+	.23	.05
2. Men's percent				
D1	.07	.70	.08	.00
D2	−.01	−.15	.13	.05
Monthly income difference	−.44	−3.89+++	.27	.14
Female sex role attitude	−.18	−1.81	.30	.03

Table 25

Regression on Childcare Time Sharing

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
1. Women's time,				
D1	−.21	−2.36+	.21	.00
D2	.28	3.15++	.38	.17
Female's age	−.27	−2.39+	.54	.16
Duration of Relationship	−.22	−1.97	.56	.02
Monthly income difference	.16	1.6	.58	.02
2. Men's time				
D1	.03	.27+	.00	.00
D2	−.07	−.64	.00	.00
Female's age	−.40	−3.75++	.13	.13
Male Career Role Salience	−.22	−2.14+	.18	.05

c. Multiple Correlations

The results of the multiple correlations on the childcare time estimates are reported in Table 25. Over 58% of the variation in a woman's time in this role could be accounted for and 38% of it by the dummy variables. Her age accounted for an additional 16%, the duration of the relationship adding another 2%, and the monthly income difference adding a further 2%.

The multiple regression on men's time explained 18% of men's variance, with 13% of this coming from the the female's age, while the salience of a career to the male contributed another 5%.

Thus, while her time in outside employment explained a substantial portion of childcare time for women, her age also contributed to the variance in both male and female time. This relationship is not to surprising if one assumes that older couples probably have older children who require less tending, particularly with regards to some of the more time consuming tasks.

D. ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE-SHARING IN THE DOMAINS

Couple factor scores on seven of the nine domains which emerged from the factor analysis were used as criterion variables in another series of multiple regression analyses. Simple correlations between the antecedent variables and the factor scores were performed first and variables which produced significant correlations were then included in the regression equation. These simple correlations are reported in Table 26. The same treatment described in the procedures section of this chapter were applied here in deciding which variables to include and which to drop from the equations. Again, dummy variables were used where appropriate.

None of the predictor variables correlated significantly with the decision-making domain or the handyman domain. This could be because there was little variation in the way responsibilities for these roles were divided. Interestingly Nyquist et al. (1985) were at a

Table 26
Simple Correlations of Antecedent Variables with Role-Sharing Dimensions

Variables	Dimensions								
	Domestic/ Childcare	Sexual Expression	Decision Making	Therapeutic	Handyman	Homemaker	Kinship/ Empathisizer	Verbal Expression	Child Involvement
Breadwinner Attitudes									
Male–rights	.21*	-.19*				.19*		.17*	
Male–Obligation									-.23**
Female	.17*			.17*					
Sex Role Attitudes									
Male	.29**						.28**	.17*	
Female	.27**						.17*	.20*	
Career Role Salience									
Male	.19*	-.17*				.17*			
Female	-.22*								
Monthly Income Difference									
Male	.61***			.27**		.24**	.21*	.18*	
Female	.61***			.27**		.23**	.27*	.19*	
Education Level									
Male							-.23**		-.16*
Female	-.33**								
Age									
Male									
Female									
Duration of Relationship									
Male									-.19*
Female									-.19*

* significant at .05 level
** significant at .01 level
*** significant at .001 level

loss when it came to finding any variables which could explain variations in couples behaviors in their maintenance role as well. Thus seven multiple regression equations were performed.

The criterion variable in each was labelled the woman's share. As composite mean scores on each domain increased, this reflected an increase in the frequency with which the women carried out the responsibilities in that domain and a corresponding decrease in the frequency with which the man carried out these responsibilities.

1. DOMESTIC/CHILDCARE DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

A woman's share in the Domestic/Childcare domain increased as the gap in monthly incomes widened in her partner's favor ($r=.61$ $p\leq.001$). Attitudinal factors also had a significant impact upon the extent of her share. If either partner held a traditional attitude towards sex-roles ($r=29$ for men; $r=27$ for women, both $p \leq 01$), or felt that both partners did not have a right to share in the breadwinner role then her share in this domain increased. The value each partner placed on the importance of having a career also affected how much the female partner contributed. Women's share was greater if she was in a relationship with a man who placed high value on his career ($r=.19$, $p \leq .05$). If she placed much importance on having a career then her share tended to decrease ($r=-22$, $p \leq 05$). Her education level also influenced her share, with higher achievements in the former being associated with lower levels of the latter ($r=-.33$, $p \leq .01$)

b. Multiple Correlations

Two dummy variables were again used in the multiple regression equation in order to ascertain the contribution of income difference once family structure (i.e. whether the female had outside employment or not)was controlled for. In total, 38% of

the variance in this domain was explained, with the income difference adding 14% of the variance and the female's level of education adding another 4% above the 20% explained by the two dummy variables. These results are reported in Table 27. Thus, while time in outside employment accounted for much of the variation in sharing in this domain, the monthly income difference between partners still made a substantial contribution to sharing patterns.

In order to further understand the impact of the monthly income difference on the behaviour of the sample, the sample was subdivided into three groups, depending upon whether the wife worked full-time, part-time, or was at home by choice. All the males in these sub-samples were employed on a full-time basis. Simple correlations were then performed between all antecedent variables and the Domestic/Childcare scores of the three groups. Income difference was a significant variable for both the full-time working group ($r = 55$, $p \leq .01$, $n = 24$) and the part-time working group ($r = 36$, $p \leq 05$, $n = 26$). However, this variable did not reach significance for couples where the man was employed on a full time basis and the women was at home on a full time basis. These results are reported in Table 28.

Multiple regression performed on the sub-group of couples where both were employed full time explained 46% of the variation in sharing in these couples. The income difference accounted for 29% of the variance, while the sex-role attitude of the female contributed another 16%. Thus, economic resources appear to play a major role in sharing in this domain, however, some of the role overload women in these dual-working couples might be experiencing may, in part, be a function of their traditional attitudes towards sex-roles.

The findings with the part-time employed women were also surprising. Income difference ($r = .36$, $p \leq 05$) and female attitude towards sharing the breadwinner responsibilities ($r = 37$, $p \leq .05$) were both entered into the multiple regression equation. Only the breadwinner attitude emerged to explain 13% of the variance for these

couples. Thus if aa woman did not feel that both partners had equal responsibility to contribute to the breadwinner role, then her share of task enactment in the Domestic/Childcare domain rose.

The only variable which was significant for the third group of couples was the female's sex role attitude. Thus it would appear that in the single breadwinner families the woman's attitude is an important factor associated with the shares of Domestic/Childcare labor each partner performs. Thus, in summary both income difference and the attitude of the female partner were found to be important variables in understanding the pattern of role-sharing in this domain.

2. SEXUAL EXPRESSIVE DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

Two variables correlated significantly with the role enactment of women in the sexual expressive domain and both of these were male dependent. If the male was supportive to the idea that both partners have an equal right to share in the breadwinner role ($r=-.19$, $p \leq .05$) and if having a career was considered to be very important to him ($r=-.17$, $p \leq .05$) than he enacted a greater share in this domain, and her share was less.

b. Multiple Correlations

These results are reported in Table 29. Both these variables combined to explane approximately 10% of the variation in this domain. The male's attitude towards his career explained 4% of the variance, and his attitude towards sharing breadwinning responsibilities added another 6%. Thus the shares which each partner enacts in the sexual expression domain can be associated with the male's attitude towards the work role and how it is to be enacted in the family.

Table 27

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Domestic/Childcare Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
D1	-.13	-1.3	.13	.00
D2	.06	.577	.20	.07
Monthly income difference	.41	3.79++	.34	.14
Female, education level	-.21	-2.20	.38	.04

Table 28

Regression of Domestic/Childcare Division of Labor, Depending upon Female's Employment Status

1. Regression with Full-time Workers only

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
Monthly income difference	.51	3.18++	.29	.00
Female sex-role attitude	.41	2.53+	.46	.17

2. Regression with Part-time Workers Only

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
Female breadwinner attitude	.37	2.01	.13	.00

*Not significant

3. DECISION MAKING DOMAIN

None of the antecedent variables correlated significantly with the factor score on this domain. This may be due to the fact that since over 93% of the couples in this study were sharing responsibilities fairly equally there was almost no variation to account for.

4. THERAPEUTIC DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

The extent to which women have a greater share of the responsibility for nurturing and supporting the family in this sample was related to the monthly income difference ($r=.27$, $p \leq .05$) and to her attitude regarding sharing in the breadwinner role ($r=.17$, $p \leq .05$). The less agreeable she was to equal sharing of breadwinning and the greater the income difference was in favor of her partner, than the greater was her share in this domain.

b. Multiple Correlations

Approximately 12% of the variance in sharing in this domain was explained. After the dummy variables had been entered, the income difference added only 4% to this total. Table 30 reports on this results. A pattern implied by thess results is that the resources of support and nurturance are being exchanged with financial resources, as predicted (Safilios-Rothschild, 1975; Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976).

5. HANDYMAN DOMAIN

None of the antecedent variables in this study produced significant correlations with the factor score in this domain. This could have been due to the same factors as reported with the decision making domain, that a lack of variability in the sample was responsible for this.

6. HOMEMAKER DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

Three variables related significantly with the women's performance in the Homemaker Domain. Income difference ($r=.24$, $p \leq .01$) and male's attitudes towards their career (highly salient) ($r=.17$) or towards sharing breadwinner responsibilities (disagreeing) ($r=.19$, $p \leq .05$) were the three predictors.

b. Multiple Correlations

Slightly less than 9% of the variance in this domain (see Table 31) was explained. The career role salience of the male contributed 4% of the variance above that explained by the two dummy variables, however, income difference failed to contribute to this explanation.

7. KINSHIP/EMPATHESIZER DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

The monthly income difference between partners was associated with the woman share of establishing and maintaining communication with his relatives. ($r=.27$, $p \leq .01$). Also, as his level of education increased, her share of these responsibilities decreased ($r=.23$, $p \leq .01$). Sex role attitudes also affected the amount of her share in this area, and if either partner possessed a traditional attitude towards sex roles, then her share increased (for men $r=.28$, $p \leq .01$) for women, ($r=.17$, $p \leq .05$).

b. Multiple Correlations

The regression equation explaine approximately 19% of the variance in this domain. Table 32 reports these results. The sex role attitude of the male explained an additional 16% of this variance, as the two dummy variables explained only 3%. Essentially, men who believe in the traditional responsibilities for role performances are

Table 29

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Sexual Expression Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
Male breadwinner attitude	−.25	−2.63++	.04	.00
Male Career Role Salience	−.25	−2.59+	.10	.06

Table 30

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Therapeutic Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
D1	.06	.55	.01	.00
D2	.21	1.76	.08	.07
Monthly income difference	.21	1.69	.12	.04

Table 31

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Homemaker Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
D1	-.15	-1.34	.04	.00
D2	.09	.78	.05	.01
Male career role salience	.20	1.82	.09	.04

likely to enact less of a share in this domain, even though the tasks which comprised this domain involved their kin!

8. VERBAL EXPRESSION DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

In the couples in this study, the division of labor within this domain was related to three groups of variables. Sex role attitudes in either partner ($r=.17$ for males, $r=.20$ for females), and a traditional attitude in the male towards woman's right to share equally in the breadwinner role ($r=.17$) were associated with woman carrying out more of these expressive functions within the relationship. Woman's share of these tasks increased as the monthly income difference increased in her partner's favor ($r=.19$, $p \leq .05$).

b. Multiple Correlations

Table 33 reports on the results of the multiple correlation analysis. A total of 14% of the variance in this domain was explained by the female's attitude towards sex roles. The two dummy variables did not contribute any variance to this total. Women with a traditional sex role attitude were more doing more initiating and raising of issues of importance in the relationship than their partner's were.

9. CHILD INVOLVEMENT DOMAIN

a. Simple Correlations

Three variables correlated significantly with the woman's share of task performance in this role, and each of them implied a lessening of her share. The length of time the couple had been together ($r=-.19$, $p \leq .05$); the level of education achieved by her partner ($r=-.16$, $p \leq .05$) and the more he feels that sharing in the breadwinner role should not be obligatory for both partners ($r=-.24$, p

Table 32

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Kinship/Empathesizer Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
D1	.01	.12	.00	.00
D2	.09	.84	.02	.02
Male sex role attitude	.40	3.71++	.18	.16

Table 33

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Verbal Expression Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
D1	.031	.31	.00	.00
D2	-.13	-1.11	.00	.00
Female sex role attitude	.39	3.33++	.13	.13

Table 34

Regression on the Woman's Share in the Child Involvement Dimension

Variables	Beta	t	R^2	Increase in R^2
Duration of Relationship	-.36	-3.95++	.12	.00
Male breadwinner attitude	-.19	-2.14	.15	.03

. ≤ .01).

b. Multiple Correlations

Table 34 reports on the results of the multiple correlational analysis. Approximately 15% of the variance was explained. The length of time the couple had been together accounted for 12% of the variance, and the male's attitude toward breadwinning added another 3%. The fact that the woman's share in this sample decreases over time comes as no suprise given the nature of the tasks involved in this domain in conjunction with the fact that the children of those couples who have been together longer tend to be older and thus require less involvement from their parents. Without having assessed the ages of children directly, (see question 11 in section one of questionnaire) further conclusions regarding the relationship between these varaibles in this study is not warranted.

E. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS ON THE ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE-SHARING

1. While income difference appeared to account for much of the differences in how couples share labour in their relationship, its impact in this study was confounded by the fact that the number of hours spent in outside employment by each partner was not gathered. Thus, the relationship between income difference and role-sharing could have been due to the fact that most of the men in the study were employed full-time, while only a third of the women in the study worked outside the home more than 35 hours a week. Thus, what at first glance appeared to be a potent factor in explaining role-sharing could have been a spureous finding. However, partial control through the use of dummy variables based on the woman's employment status allowed the impact which income difference had beyond that due to approximate differences in employment status to be explored. For the most part,the income difference between the partners still made a substantial contribution to the role-sharing. Male housework and

childcare percent contributions, women's time in housework and childcare, and sharing in the Domestic/Childcare domain were significantly influenced bf the difference in monthly incomes between partners. As this difference increased in the male's favor, the woman's share of family work increased.

2. In this sample approximately 58% of the variance in the time women spend in childcare could be explained by her outside employment status, her age, the duration of the relationship, and the income difference. The meaning of this relationship is confounded by the lack of data on the exact ages of the children in this study.
3. Approximately 18% of the variance in the time men contribute to childcare was explained by their partner's age and employment status, and their attitude towards having a career. However the same limitation applies here with respect to the lack of exact data on the ages of the children.
4. Approximately 38% of the variance in a woman's share of Domestic/Childcare labor was explained. The monthly income difference between partners added to 14% of this variance and the women's level of education contributed another 4%. A woman's share was found to increase as the income difference rose in the man's favor, but decrease as her level of education rose.
5. In the male only breadwinner families (n = 27), the more traditional the male's attitude was towards sex roles, the greater was the woman's share of Domestic/Childcare tasks.
6. For those couples in this sample where the female worked part-time and the male was employed full-time, sharing in the Domestic/Childcare role was explained best by the attitude she held towards sharing in the breadwinner role. The less she agreed with the idea of a shared right and duty the more her share increased.
7. For the dual-working couples in this study (n = 24), 16% of the variance in the partner's shares in the Domestic/Childcare domain was explained by her attitude towards sex roles. The monthly income difference between her and her partner

explained 29% of this variance however.

8. Only 10% of the variance in the Sexual Expression role could be explained in this study. Male's attitudes towards sex roles and towards career roles offered the only explanation. The more traditional and career oriented the male, the greater was his share in this role.
9. Only 4% of the variance in the Therapeutic domain could be explained by the monthly income difference, above the 8% explained by the two dummy variables. The greater the difference was in the male's favor, the less was the share he contributed to this role.
10. Approximately 9% of the variance in the Homemaker domain could be explained. The male's career role salience attitude explained approximately 4% of this.
11. Close to 19% of the varience in sharing patterns in the Kinship/Empathesizer role was explained. The male's sex role attitude contributed to 16% of this variance. Men with traditional attitudes towards the roles, enact less of the tasks in this domain despite the fact that in this study at least, most of the tasks involved maintaining contact with his relatives.
12. Approximately 14% of the variance in the Verbal Expression domain was explained by the woman's attitude towards sex roles.Again, if she possessed a traditional attitude than she enacted a greater share of the work in this domain.
13. In the Child Involvement role approximately 15% of the variance was explained, 12% of it by the duration of the relationship. The male's attitude towards sharing the breadwinner role added another 3%. This relationship appears to be confounded by the age of the children.
14. None of the antecedent variables included in this study correlated significantly with the Decision Making domain or with the Handyman domain.

VIII. CHAPTER VIII DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

A. INTRODUCTION

This study had three main goals. The first was to investigate the structure of "role-sharing" by focusing specifically on the assumption that "role-sharing" is unidimensional. If role-sharing was unidimensional then couples who share tasks equally in one role would also share equally the performance of other family roles. If on the other hand, role-sharing was found to be multidimensional then, we could conclude that the patterns of sharing in different domains may not be directly related to one another.

A second goal of this study was to investigate how egalitarian couples were in their division of family labor. Past studies have established that family labor is clearly segregated by sex and generally partners do little more then help in roles which are not considered to be assigned to them. In my study family labor was considered to include instrumental and expressive tasks. Although most theorists acknowledge that relationships include an instrumental and an expressive domain, the expressive domain has been virtually ignored as a component of family role-sharing. This may be the result of a "machismo factor" in social research (Wilson, 1982) which dismisses tasks in the expressive dimension because they are not considered real work. Freely translated, that means that these tasks do not bring in income, or produce sweat. However, the expressive domain may be excluded for another reason. Some researchers believe that the tasks in these roles are mutual because they are interactional in nature. This implies that both partners share in the enactment of the tasks and that it is virtually impossible for one partner to be doing a greater share of enactment in the role (Levenger, 1964; Nye *et al.*, 1976). Thus equal sharing occurs naturally in this dimension.

The third goal of this study was exploring the impact of selected antecedent variables on the patterns of role-sharing in the relationship. The variables of interest in this study were: attitudes towards sharing the breadwinner role, sex role attitudes, career role

salience attitudes, levels of education, monthly income difference, age, and the duration of the relationship. These variables had been selected from the literature in the area because they showed some promise towards explaining variations in role-sharing in couples.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the results of this study with regards to the three main goals of this research. The major questions are restated, the results are summarized and discussed, and the theoretical implications of these results are explored. Overall, conclusions are presented, and practical implications arising from the conclusions are discussed. In closing this chapter, future research plans are presented.

B. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Before discussing the findings of this study some restrictions of these results need to be presented. Strictly speaking, because the sample for this study was not selected randomly, but was composed of volunteers, these results may not apply to couples other than the designated sample or, couples who closely resemble the couples in this study.

Because researchers have conceptualized and measured "role-sharing" in unique ways, direct comparisons to past trends on sharing behavior must be made with caution. Particularly with respect to Canadian samples. Cultural differences might be operating here.

C. THE STRUCTURE OF ROLE-SHARING

1. QUESTION ONE: WHAT IS THE STRUCTURE OF ROLE-SHARING?

It has been assumed that couples who share responsibilities for breadwinning and decision making also share in the responsibilities for family roles (DeFrain, 1975; Haas, 1977; Hoffman, 1963). This implies that role-sharing is unidimensional, and that the pattern of sharing a couple establishes on any one role could possibly be used to predict patterns of behavior on other family roles. In other words a couple's behavior is assumed to be consistent across family roles.

The logic behind this assumption is that in relationships where economic resources are equally shared then power and influence in decision making will be equal. With this being the case then the negotiating and bargaining power around the division of domestic tasks will be equal for both partners and one partner should not have to assume more of a share of the work in these areas.

The findings in this study do not support that general assumption. The structure of role-sharing which emerged from factor analysing couples' reports on how labor was divided in their relationships was multidimensional, not unidimensional. Nine independent factors reflecting instrumental and expressive roles emerged from the factor analysis; the intercorrelations among the nine factor scores ranged from -.10 to .40, with most of the correlations being non significant.

The idea that the way couples share roles may be multidimensional rather then unidimensional receives support from two recent studies. These studies also used factor analysis to determine role structure, but only in the instrumental domain (Bird *et al.*, 1984; Nyquist *et al.*, 1985). The study by Bird *et al.* (1984) found that sharing of household tasks clustered into seven factors including meal preparation, child-care, maintenance, repair, management of family activities, financial management, cleaning, and lawn and garden tasks. The second researchers (Nyquist *et al.*, 1985) extracted four general factors which they labelled house, maintenance, child, and decision. These authors also reported that the inter-factor correlations were minimal.

The differences between the findings in this study and those of Haas (1977) and others who observed that sharing across roles was related could be due to the differences in sample characterisitics used in each of the studies. In the Haas (1977) study, equal sharing of the main roles was a criteria for inclusion, while in De Frain's study, recruitment procedures could have led to a skewed sample to begin with i.e. (advertising for couples who felt that they did share in the parenting role). It is not surprising that their behavior across other family roles would be more consistent given the kinds of

arrangements which have to be made structurally to accommodate for an equal sharing pattern, along with the androgynous personalities of these individuals (De Frain, 1975; Haas, 1977). These couples are not your average couples. In my study only 1% of the couples were sharing tasks equally across all nine roles. Certainly if we were to make assumptions about the process of role-sharing in the general population based on this segment of the sample then we would certainly misrepresent the frequency with which this role-sharing pattern occurs, as well as misrepresent the pattern of sharing practised by the average couple. The finding in my study that approximately 66% of the couples were found to be sharing in five or more roles might be closer to the norm.

What we can conclude is that the pattern of sharing responsibility which a couple establishes in any one particular role is not a good prediction of their pattern of sharing in other family roles. This may require us to re-examine conceptions of role-sharing which do not recognize the dynamic aspect to the exchange process and which instead propose a simple exchange or role-reversal model.

2. QUESTION TWO: ARE THERE GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEPTIONS OF THE STRUCTURE OF ROLE-SHARING?

Was the structure of role-sharing obtained from male perceptions of task enactment different from the overall structure of role-sharing obtained from female perceptions of task enactment?

Bernard (1973) was perhaps the first theorist to systematically elaborate the concept that men and women have different experiences and different perceptions about their own marriages, and that these differences were substantial enough to conceive marriage as being categorized as "his" and "hers". Since Bernard's proposition, numerous studies have described objective and subjective differences which occur within marriages (Eichler, 1983). Eichler (1983) proposed that our understanding of the separate realities of husbands and wives, men and women, has been hampered in part by the methodological practise of

gathering data about the family from only one family member. Typically, the woman is the respondent in most studies. The assumption behind this purpose is that the family members share one reality, one way of perceiving the events and interactions which occur within their relationship. While the question of separate realities for men and women was not a major focus of this study, it was believed that some contribution to the issue could be made due to the nature of this study. Eichler (1983) states that "subjective differences manifest themselves primarily in discrepant responses to the same questions ... and in different experiences and evaluations of familial situations or events" (1983, p. 93). Did that situation arise in this study, and if so, are there any patterns to the discrepancies?

There was no significant difference in the overall structures of role-sharing, as the factor matching program showed the structures to be similar. There was good inter-rater agreement on the frequency of task performance as well. However, in determining the reliability of the couples' perceptions, some significant difference between the males' and the females' perceptions of how frequently a task was performed were found. Thus, at this subjective level (Eichler, 1983), we did find some discrepant responses to the same question. This could lead us to conclude that indeed separate realities do exist for men and for women. However a pattern was evident to these discrepant responses. It appeared that disagreements occured most often on tasks which both sexes agreed were performed much more frequently by one partner, thus these tasks were being shared least. If one is not very involved in carrying out a specific task than the margin for error in reporting on the frequency with which one's partner performs that task could be great, thus producing a discrepancy between partner's answers.

However, the findings in my study do appear to contradict one another, as there appeared to be no difference in perceptions of the structures of role-sharing, but some differences in perceptions in the performance of tasks. It would seem that the couples had the same outlook generally about the roles which comprise their relationship and yet had some different ideas about how tasks within these roles are enacted? This could be

explained by recognizing that these two "issues" are at different logical levels to each other (a discussion of the Theory of Logical Types from which this assumption is drawn is outside the scope of this study, however a brief but thorough description of this Theory is to be found in Watzlawick, Weakland, and Fisch, 1974). The relevance of the Theory to the finding under discusssion here is that a real distinction exists in terms of the levels of perceptions being examined here. It is not just a distinction between subjective and objective levels but also between "class" and "member". In this instance, the tasks which comprise a role are "members" of the "class" or role. This is where in my study the apparent "discrepancy" between partner's responses has occured and yet as the Theory of Logical Types indicates, it is crucial that these two levels be kept separate so tha confusion and paradox do not arise. Thus based on these findings the idea that separate "realities" exist for men and women because of the differences in perceptions may need to be examined more closely in relation to both the context and the level of observation upon which this conclusion is based.

D. THE PRACTICE OF ROLE-SHARING

1. QUESTION THREE: WHO HAS THE MAIN RESPONSIBILITY FOR PERFORMING HOUSEWORK AND CHILDCARE TASKS?

It has been suggested that the responsibilities for family work are becoming more equally shared by partners (Araji, 1977; Bird et al., 1984). This is due mainly to a decline in the amount of time women invest in family work and a very slight increase in the contribution men make to performing family tasks. A woman's involvement in the work force is believed to be the main reason for her lower involvement at home. The reasons for the increases males have shown have not been determined. My study cannot address the issues of whether men are doing more work and women doing less. However, the data does allow us to examine whether the contribution of both parties is equal or not, and to

examine in which domains the couples' practices are more equal.

On the average the women are doing significantly more housework and childcare then their partners are. This situation occurred regardless of the employment status of the females, and regardless of whether hired or outside help was used by a couple. However, both these factors had effects upon the division of labor.

The presence of outside or hired help had no significant impact upon the contribution men made towards performing housework and childcare tasks. For women however, the use of hired domestic help decreased the percent of housework she performed ($t = 4.01$, $p \leq .00$) but not her time commitment ($t = 1.41$, $p \leq .16$). The use of childcare help also significantly lowered her percentage involvement in this area ($t = 3.12$, $p \leq .002$) but once again did not substantially decrease the amount of time she spent performing childcare functions ($t = .18$, $p \leq .85$).

The fact that the use of help in this sample serves to decrease the proportion of labor but not the time that women spend in housework and childcare was confusing. One explanation is that the women who make use of outside help were performing a much greater share of the labor in these two areas prior to the employment of help. Outside help then, would serve to decrease this proportion while at the same time simply make the overall time these women spent in these areas more equal to the time involvement of women who did not use outside help.

It was somewhat surprising to find that the presence of outside help had no significant impact upon the contribution men made towards housework and childcare. This may be a result of the fact that men's contribution revolved around a fairly low baseline level to begin with. Other researchers (Pleck, 1977, 1982) have noted that men's level of involvement may be more resistant to variations due to structural factors then women's due to this lower baseline. Another possible explanation is that the burden of responsibility is shifted onto the hired help.

While outside help had only a minimal impact upon men's labor within the relationship, their partners employment status had a much more substantial effect upon the overall levels. Two trends were noted in this regard. The first was that the more time a women spent in outside employment, the less time she spent performing housework and childcare tasks. This was not unexpected. However, the overall time which full-time employed males contributed to performing housework and childcare tasks showed a significant increase as a function of their partner's employment status. Men in dual-worker couples did spend significantly more time in childcare then did males in relationships where their partner was at home by choice ($t = 2.05$, $p \leq .05$). Oakley (1970) and Lein *et al.* (1974) suggested that husbands of working wives were more likely to increase their share of participation in childcare over housework in response to their wives' employment status. In my study, it was found that the males in dual-worker relationships did proportionately more childcare then other fathers as well as spent more time in this area. Perhaps a shift in these males' attitudes towards accepting more responsibility for parenting had occurred, making these men more sensitive to sharing parenting responsibilities more with their partners. Both men's sex role attitude and their attitude towards sharing in the breadwinner role were associated with their involvement in childcare in this study. In each case modern attitudes were associated with greater shares of involvement.

These findings lend support the notion that the "role overload" experienced by employed wives of the 1960's is not being experienced to quite the same degree by employed wives in the 1980's. Employed wives do not spend as much time in housework and childcare tasks as other women do, and the partners of full-time employed women appear to be spending more time in childcare. However it will take some time before these two patterns converge to full equality. The fact that some men in this study appear to be integrating their work with their involvement with their children is encouraging and suggests that the "asymmetrical boundaries between work and family roles" (Pleck, 1977) has been challenged in a few instances. Despite this optimistic outlook towards the future,

at the present time women still bear the burden of responsibility for housework and childcare in the couples in this study.

2. QUESTION FOUR: HOW SATISFIED ARE THE MEN AND THE WOMEN IN THIS SAMPLE WITH THE DIVISION OF LABOR?

Studies which have examined the relationship between the division of labor and marital adjustment (which has been considered to be synonymous with satisfaction) have consistently found that the more family work a wife performs the poorer is her overall adjustment and/or happiness (Bailyn, 1970; Gross and Arvey, 1977; Pearler, 1975; Straises *et al.*, 1978). This relationship may be more pertinent to dual-worker couples, where the wife's "role-overload" is considered to be a major contributing factor to her overall level of adjustment. Surprisingly, little is known about men's adjustment or happiness in relation to their contribution to family work. This may be the result of the segregated practices Eichler (1983) discusses with respect to information gathering in the family.

Over 88% of the men in the sample reported being either satisfied or very satisfied with the current way labor was being divided in thier relationships. Only 75% of the women felt this way with respect to how housework was being shared, while 84% felt these way toward childcare.

The degree of satisfaction women experienced towards how housework and childcare were being shared was directly related to the contribution their partners made in these two areas. Further, women's satisfaction decreased significantly as their own contribution to housework and childcare increased. Men's satisfaction was not associated with variations in either their own or their partner's level of housework or childcare with one exception. In the child involvement role, it appeared that the men in this study were more dissatisfied as their share decreased. Since this role involved playing with children and men tend to spend more time engaging in this then they do in any other activity, (Radin and Russell, 1982), this finding makes sence. Thus as men have less opportunity to play with their children,

they feel more dissatisfied.

In summary then, feeling satisfied with the division of labor for women appears to replicate the patterns reported towards measures of marital adjustment and family work. That is, the more her spouse contributes or the less the burden of responsibilities falls upon her shoulders, the more satisfied she is with this area in the relationship. It appears that men are satisfied with the current way labor is being divided in the relationships, and, if they experienced any dissatisfaction it is likely to be related to restrictions they encounter in being able to play with their children.

3. QUESTION FIVE: HOW ARE THE COUPLES IN THIS STUDY SHARING RESPONSIBILITIES IN THE ROLE-SHARING DOMAINS?

Considerable disparity has been found to exist between attitudes and practices towards role-sharing (Araji, 1977, Nye *et al.*, 1976). Most individuals have an attitude which is much more egalitarian then their behavior reflects. Nye *et al.* (1976) found that over half the males and females in their study felt that both partners should share responsibilities in the housekeeper role, but only 1% of the couples actually practised equal sharing. Similarily Araji (1977) found that over 30% of her sample felt that equal sharing of responsibilities in the domestic role should occur but only 12% of the couples actually practiced this arrangement. This attitude-behaviour discrepancy was evident in all traditional family roles. Enactment follows traditional stereotypes, in spite of egalitarian attitudes. Although my study did not assess role norms, role enactment was assessed quite thoroughly. The findings present a slightly more optimistic picture of the extent of sharing which the couples are engaged in.

Direct comparisons to the percentages of Nye *et al.* (1976) and Araji (1977) must be made with caution due to differences in assessment instruments. However, the instrument used in this study may be slightly more reliable and more rigorous then the assessment instrument employed by the previous researchers. If it is more rigorous, we would not

expect to obtain higher proportions due to chance and if it is more reliable then we can place more confidence in the results obtained. Sample differences could also effect the results obtained quite substantially, however, a limited comparison of sample characteristics in terms of age, education level, and composition indicated that the two samples were quite similar.

If we look at the traditional roles of domestic/childcare, decision-making, handyman, and kinship, the proportion of couples who share enactment equally ranges from 15% of the sample to 93%. Over one quarter of the couples are sharing domestic and childcare tasks on an equal basis. Over 93% of the sample reported having equal influence in decision making in their relationships. The finding of previous studies has been that decision-making is highly skewed in favor of the male. The range of decisions included in this role included major and minor decisions regarding money and finances, social and entertainment decisions, as well as decisions regarding contraception. More mutual participation was also evident in the enactment of the kinship role, over the figures of Nye and Araji.

In contrast to the apparent strides which couples have made towards more equal sharing in the above mentioned roles, responsibility for the handyman role has not altered significantly. Almost 84% of the couples in this sample reported that the role was skewed in the man's direction. Nyquist *et al.* (1985) found that their sample was similarly skewed with respect to their maintenance role.

Why does this appear to be the role that is most reflective of gender stereotyping? Certainly a lack of skill on the part of women to perform some of the tasks may be a factor as Haas (1977) suggested, although the majority of tasks which were included in this role required little special skills, i.e., shovelling snow, washing the car, yardwork, driving. The fact that these tasks tend to be seasonal and occur infrequently may also be factors as to why this role is so segregated. Perhaps men are reluctant to allow their partners to perform some of these tasks, using either a lack of strength (for shovelling), a lack of

interest (for yardwork), a lack of skill (for driving), a lack of prior knowledge (for deciding which car to buy) as their rationale (Haas, 1977). The findings in these roles suggest that overall some couples appear to be instituting more equal sharing in their relationships then previous norms would have us expect, even though there are still some roles where traditional gender-linked segregation shares still exist.

In the roles which Nye *et al.* (1977) had considered to be emerging, the sexual and therapeutic roles, they found that "considerable disparity exists between the normative prescriptions of the roles and role enactment -- especially of wives in the sexual and husbands in the therapeutic role" (1976, p.158). In my study, over half of the sample was found to be sharing equally in the initiation as well as the expression of satisfaction/dissatisfaction in the sexual role, and over 85% of the sample was sharing equally in the therapeutic role. For the remaining couples in both these areas a slightly higher proportion of males had the greater share of enactment. Given these findings it would appear that since the mid-1970s, women have become more assertive and/or involved in the sexual role in their relationships and, likewise, men have become more nurturing towards their partners, by showing concern, expressing positive and negative feedback, and engaging in conflict resolution.

In the remaining three roles, the homemaker, verbal expression, and child involvement, baseline data regarding the way couples shared reponsibilities has not been covered by Nye *et al.* (1976) or Araji (1977). It would seem though, based on other research (Parelman, 1982; Radin, 1982; Russell, 1982) and theoretical assumptions (Scanzoni and Scanzoni, 1976) that traditionally these roles have been more the domain of women then men. Thus, we could expect that enactment of the tasks in these three roles should be skewed in the direction of the female. However, this is not the case in all three roles in this study. Certainly in the homemaker role more women are enacting a greater share of this role then their partners are, although 35% of the couples are sharing equally. Likewise, in the verbal expression dimension, the balance of enactment is skewed in the woman's

direction, but even more couples are practising equal sharing in this role then in the homemaker role (47% versus 36%). This trend towards more couples sharing overall reponsibilities for role enactment and fewer couples leaving the responsibilities up to the female partner is even more evident in the child involvement dimension. Over three-quarters of the couples in the sample are sharing equally in this role, whereas in less then 20% of the couples is the female more responsible. These findings contradict the explanation that females would be responsible for enacting a greater share of the labor in these three areas.

Overall, these findings suggest that the division of labor in couples is shifting, albeit slowly, away from a stereotypic division of labor based more on gender and less on ability, desire, responsibility, or commitment. A high proportion of couples in this study were sharing roles roughly equally. Family roles that had been traditionally assigned to one spouse or the other appear to be in the process of being more integrated in this sample. In the general population, attitudes towards both partners sharing in role enactment are becoming more egalitarian (Araji, 1977). The findings with regard to the practices couples in this study have instituted towards sharing in the relationship leads one to tentatively conclude that behaviors are slowly shifting to become more in line with attitudes.

E. THE ANTECEDENTS OF ROLE-SHARING

1. QUESTION SIX: HOW DOES ONE'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS SHARING THE BREADWINNING ROLE IMPACT HOW COUPLES SHARE ROLES IN THEIR RELATIONSHIP?

In this study it was hypothesized that more sharing would occur in family roles if a husband or a wife felt that both had an equal commitment to sharing in the breadwinner role. Haas (1981) demonstrated that the attitude one held towards sharing in the breadwinner role was a more significant determinant of role-sharing in couples then

the wife's employment status. Scanzoni (1980) reported a similar association between wive's attitude towards their participation in the breadwinning role and the shares of domestic labor each partner performed.

In my study, the three measures of breadwinning (men's attitude towards equal right, men's attitude towards equal obligation, and women's attitude toward equal sharing) generally had the expected relationship with the patterns couples established in the domestic/childcare, sexual expression, homemaker, verbal expression, and child involvement roles. The woman's share in the domestic/childcare, homemaker, and verbal expression dimension, increased the more their partner disagreed with the idea that both parties should share the breadwinning. In the sexual expression role and the child involvement role, however, if the male felt that neither partner should be obligated to share in breadwinning, then his partner's share declined as his share increased.

In the sexual expression dimension the impact of the male's attitude on sharing may be due to the conditioning effects of the male sex role (David and Brannon, 1976). Because the sexual role has traditionally been dominated by males, it seems logical to find some men who feel the need to retain exclusive control in the work role also feel the need to have more direct investment in enacting the sexual role in their relationships. In other words, control in the boardroom appears to be associated with control in the bedroom.

The relationship between men's feelings about having an equal obligation to contribute to breadwinning and the woman's share in the child involvement role was unexpected. The inverse relationship that was found implies that the stronger the feeling is towards equal obligation, the greater is the wife's involvement with the children. The opposite relationship was expected as it was assumed that men who felt both partners should be equally obligated to fulfill the breadwinning role was a progressive or modern attitude. However, an alternate interpretation is that men who feel obligated to fulfill their traditional functions i.e., (the breadwinning role) feel that women should be equally

obligated to fulfill their traditional roles, which include taking care of the children. This hypothesis is quite speculative.

Although these variables produced significant simple correlations with dependent variables, they frequently did not add significant information to exploring variations in sharing patterns in many of these dimensions if knowledge of other significant predictors was known. For example, in the child involvement domain, the male's attitude towards sharing breadwinning contributed only an additional 2% of variance to that already explained by the duration of the relationship. In the sexual domain the male's attitude added another 6% to the variance already explained by the his attitude towards his career. Certainly, one explanation for the fact that these variables did not contribute much in the presence of other variables was due to their high inter-correlations with other predictors.

However, mens' breadwinning attitudes were influential in explaining variation in sharing in the sexual expression and child involvement roles. At least in the sexual expression role, the pattern tends to illustrate the tenets of social-exchange theory, which implies that if one partner were to become more responsible for providing a service that was exclusively performed by the other partner then a more equitable contract would be established in the relationship. The findings in this study suggest that in a relationship traditional sharing patterns are altered the more one holds a modern attitude towards enactment of the breadwinning role. However, in some instances the meaning of the relationship is unclear. This certainly could be due to the way that the breadwinning variable is being interpreted in this study. Further work to establish its criterion-related and construct validity appears to be required. However, these attitudes alone do not offer the best explanation for sharing in family roles.

2. QUESTION SEVEN: DOES POSSESSING A MODERN OR LIBERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD SEX ROLES LEAD TO A MORE EQUITABLE DIVISION OF LABOR?

The division of labor in family roles has long been thought to be influenced by sex role attitudes of partners, and, several studies have found that individuals who possess liberal or modern attitudes towards sex roles do tend to show slightly less then traditional patterns of participation in family roles. The magnitude of this relationship tends to be surprisingly small, and, influenced by gender and employment status.

In this study, sex role attitudes were found to be fairly significant predictors of role-sharing, and housework and childcare labor. If either sex possessed a traditional attitude towards sex roles it was found that a woman's share of housework increased significantly while the man's share of housework and childcare decreased significantly. Although the size of the correlation varied depending upon whose estimation of housework and childcare contributions were used, direction of the relationship between the attitude measures and the dependent variables remained significant.

Sex role attitudes were found to be significant predictors of the role-sharing in three domains; domestic/childcare, kinship/empathizer, and verbal expression. In each instance, a woman's share of the work in these domainss increased if either partner in the relationship possessed a traditional attitude. The woman's sex role attitude contributed an additional 16% of variance to the 29% already accounted for by the income difference, in a small (n=24) sample of dual-worker couples in the domestic/childcare domain. In the kinship/empathizer domain, the male's sex role atitude contributed 16% of variance to the 19% explained in total. The female's attitude towards sex roles added an additional 14% to the variance explained in the verbal expression dimension.

One conclusion that we can drawn from these findings is that it appears that sex role attitude and sex make for different impacts upon sharing. It appears that in dual-working couples, the female's attitude towards sex roles plays a more influential role in the balance of sharing. In more traditional single breadwinner couples the male's attitude towards sex roles appears to cast the deciding vote. These findings may follow Yorgev's (1981) conclusions that some women are still struggling with the traditional stereotypic

prescriptions about a women's role in the family, while being employed full time. Thus, the woman's attitude, in some instances, appears to be contributing to the role overload she may be experienceing in her relationship.

In conclusion then, sex role attitudes often make a valuable contribution to explaining variations in sharing practices couples establish in their relationships.

3. QUESTION EIGHT: IF AN INDIVIDUAL PLACES A HIGH VALUE ON HAVING A JOB OR A CAREER, DOES THAT DECREASE THEIR SHARE OF FAMILY WORK?

Career role salience refers to the importance an individual places upon their work or having a career (Greenhaus, 1971). It has been proposed that individuals who show high levels of career salience place greater importance upon their work and are likely to be less involved in family roles because this areas does not offer them much fulfillment (Thomas and Bruning, 1981). However, Bird *et al.* (1984) found that measures of an individuals salience to the employment role had no impact whatsoever on how couples shared family tasks. It was hypothesized that for both sexes career salience would likely lead to lower levels of role-sharing and participation in housework and childcare.

Career role salience in men was associated with lower percent and time contributions to childcare, but this variable did not make any contribution to explaining housework participation. With regards to childcare, this variable contributed approximately 5% to the time variance and only 3% to the percent variance. For women, career salience did not effect housework or childcare time or percent.

The men in my study appear to illustrate the point proposed by Thomas and Bruning (1981) that, men who feel more fulfilled by their careers are likely to make less of a contribution to housework or childcare because these activities are not fulfilling to them. It is also likely that those individuals with high levels of career salience are employed in full time, demanding and time consuming jobs which detract from their energy

and time available to devote to domestic and childcare tasks.

Male's career salience was also associated with a sharing in the homemaker domain. As expected, a woman's share in this domain increased if her partner placed high value on having a career. In this domain, the male's career role salience added an additional 4% of variance to the full model.

Career role salience explained 4% of variance in the sexual expression role. This role is traditionally enacted more by men then by women (Nye *et al.*, 1976). This behavior appears to be consistent with the kind of self-image one might expect a career oriented male to possess. Support is leant to this idea by virtue of the fact that the variance in the sexual expression role was explained by the combination of two male attitudes – breadwinner attitude and career role. Both combined to indicate that the more traditional, career oriented the male, the more likely he would enact a greater share of what occurs within the sexual dimension in the relationship.

In this study then, career salience added slightly to explaining how couples shared responsibilities for some domains within their relationships unlike the findings of Bird *et al.* (1984). As suggested by Thomas and Bruning (1981) individuals who place a high value on having a job or a career and gain some self-fulfillment from these areas are likely to decrease their involvement in family roles and the performance of routine housework and childcare tasks. This study found that this relationship was true for men but not for women. In the future it may be important to ascertain the number of hours an individual is devoting to outside employment, so that the constraints this factor places upon the time one can devote to family work can be clarified even further.

4. QUESTION NINE: DOES THE MONTHLY INCOME DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PARTNERS HAVE AN IMPACT UPON THE DIVISION OF FAMILY LABOR?

Income difference can be seen as a variable in resource theory. Resource theory proposes that the more economic resources a woman controls in the relationship, the more

able she will be to persuade her mate to assume an equal share of responsibility for family work (Blood and Wolf, 1960; Haas, 1981). Absolute and relative income level of partners have been useful predictors of the division of labor in relationships (Berk and Berk, 1979; Maret and Finlay, 1984; Perucci *et al.*, 1978), explaining as much as 19% of the variance in daily upkeep of the home for example (Haas, 1981). Frequently these studies have studied this variable within a fairly homogeneous sample, in terms of income; and Maret and Finlay (1984) proposed that the relative income difference be examined among a more varied sample. The hypothesis proposed in my study was that the greater the monthly income difference was shifted in the male's favor, the less housework and childcare he would perform and the less he would share in the performance of family roles.

As predicted, monthly income difference was a significant predictor of the housework and childcare sharing as well as sharing in the domestic/childcare, and therapeutic domains. The amount of variance this variable contributed after differences in hours spent in outside employment was partially controlled for, ranged from 29% to 2%. In each of these domains, the greater the monthly income difference was shifted in the male's favor, the greater was the contribution made by his partner. Among a subsample of dual-working couples, income difference explained 29% of the variance in domestic/childcare sharing.

A number of theories have been proposed to explain why it appears that women may need to buy equality in their relationships. Model (1981) and Maret and Findlay (1984), believed that money is synonymous with power, and power determines the division of labor. Whoever has the resources in the relationship also has the power over determining how labor is assigned and who is to be exempt from labor.

For dual-working couples however, resource theory does appear to offer one explanation for how labor is shared between partners. True to Maret and Finlay's (1984) belief, in these couples it appears that women have to buy equality.

5. QUESTION TEN: HOW DOES ONE'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION AFFECT THE SHARING OF FAMILY WORK?

The level of education one possesses has frequently been viewed as another variable in resource theory. Women who are highly educated are viewed as having more power in their relationships and therefore more input into how labor is to be shared. Part of the power which occurs through a high level of education may be due to some of the other conditions which can be associated with this – like access to higher paying jobs . Highly educated men are viewed as potentially having more liberal and modern attitudes generally and, these attitudes may effect their willingness to participate more in domestic labor. Given these findings it was hypothesized in this study that higher levels of education would be associated with women performing less domestic work and while higher levels would lead to men performing more domestic work.

In my study, the more educated a woman was the less was her share in the domestic/childcare domain and in the percent of housework she performed. The male's level of education had no significant impact upon either his share of the family work nor his partner's share. The sample of males as a whole were fairly well educated as approximately 88% had more then a high school diploma.

In this study, as predicted, women who were more educated tended to have smaller shares of the work in some family roles. Men's education level had no impact whatsoever on their contribution to the division of labor. In the presence of other resource variables, like income difference, education is not a significant predictor, however.

6. QUESTION ELEVEN: ARE YOUNGER INDIVIDUALS LIKELY TO SHARE THE WORKLOAD IN THEIR RELATIONSHIP; AND DOES LESS ROLE-SHARING OCCUR WITH TIME?

The variables age and duration of relationship were highly correlated ($r = .69$; $p \leq .000$) and had similar impact upon the dependent variables in this study. Prior research

has found that these two variables tend to have a negative impact upon domestic sharing. That is, older couples, those who are in later stages of the life-cycle of their relationship, tend to show much more segregation of family work. In this study, separate hypotheses were first proposed with respect to these two variables, but, due to their high intercorrelations, this now appears unwarranted.

Neither age nor duration of the relationship offered any explanation for the division of housework in this sample, however both variables showed very significant correlations with the amount of time spent in childcare. Children's age was found to be a significant confounding variable, and, once the ages of the children were partialled out the relationship became clearer. As couples in this study age and are together longer in their relationship their children also age. It appears that older couples spend less time in childcare because older children require less time. Age does not have any impact upon the percentages of childcare performed by husbands and wives because these percentages do not appear to shift with age. Thus, the relative contributions of each spouse appears to remain the same over time, even though the amount of time they invest in childcare decreases. This is certainly applicable to the relationship found between the duration of the relationship and the child involvement role. Consider that the two activities which comprised the role were bathing and playing with children. Obviously very few parents need to devote much time to these tasks once the child is past six.

The fact that no relationship between age and housework and family role sharing (other then the child involvement role) occurred in this study is felt to possibly be due to two factors. Age of the sample was restricted in order to control for any generation effects. In at least two prior studies which reported significant correlations, this procedure was not followed (Farkas, 1979, Haas, 1981). Thus, one possible reason for the difference in results could be due to a generational effect occurring in those studies.

While the hypothesis regarding the effect of age upon the division of labor in relationships appeared to be partially supported in this study, an alternative hypothesis

offered a more plausible explanation for these findings. Future studies may want to include children's age in assessments of childcare labor and acknowledge that different aged children have different needs and make different demands upon parents. Further studies investigating the relationship between age and role-sharing may need to keep in mind the impact of mixing generations within their sample.

F. CONCLUSIONS

1. There appears to be little relationship between the ways couples share the different family roles in their relationship. A couple who shares equally in the performance of childcare tasks for example, is not more likely to practise equal sharing in another family role. It appears that the patterns which are established around the division of labor between partners are unique to the particular role. This suggests that factors like skill, past experience with the tasks involved, comfort with performance, attitudes, etc., may make specific contributions to the share's engaged in by each partner. Given that the early socialization of most men is still oriented away from having experience and developing the instrumental and expressive skills necessary to make a contribution equal to that of their female partner towards family roles, full equality in these roles remains an ideological concept and will continue as such.

2. Even if equality does not appear to be within our grasp at the present time, some couples are sharing equally in family domains which was not the norm ten to thirty years ago (Boyd, 1985; Nye et al., 1976). Also, in most domains it appears that the shares performed by each partner are not as disproportionate as they were ten years ago (Nye et al.,1976). Based on the data in the study, we cannot be sure as to what has contributed to this shift in the division of labor. Certainly, women could be doing less work thereby dropping their proportion without men altering their contribution whatever. However, in some roles and some contexts, men may actually be showing slight increases in their contributions.

3. Despite these shifts to the division of labor, women still perform a disproportionate amount of the work load within the family. Even in dual worker couples, males appear to do little more then help out in the most demanding and time-consuming roles.

4. The current theories appear to be much more applicable to explaining variations in behavior in the instrumental roles and much less helpful when applied to understanding variations in partners' behavior in the expressive roles. This appears to be due to the fact that the expressive roles have not been included in previous studies of role-sharing. And, possibly this situation has arisen because most researchers do not consider the nurturing, expressive, interactional giving and taking which goes on in all relationships as legitimate work.

5. Reliance on a single theory to explore variations in the amount of sharing couples exhibit in family roles hinders our ability to understand and appreciate the full complexity of the division of labor. Our ability to explain variations in the patterns couples practise is enhanced when elements of the major three theories (resource, social-exchange, and socialization) are integrated rather then segregated. It may be that these theories are no longer as applicable as they once were in explaining the division of labor in relationships because the norms and behaviors of today's couple have undergone significant evolution over the last two decades.

6. It would appear that women may need to buy equality in the division of labor given the strong, consistent association between income difference and role-sharing in my study. As the income difference between partner's increased in the male's favor the amount of sharing which occured decreased proportionately in almost all the family domains examined. Not only does "money talk" but it appears to "determine" who will be responsible for what tasks, plus the degree of responsibility each partner will assume.

7. The attitudes held towards work and the work role were also found to exert some influence over the division of labor. Male's attitudes on these issues influenced their

share of instrumental and expressive role behaviors as well as the behaviors of their partners more so than did female attitudes on these issues. Essentially the more importance the male placed upon his performance in the work role and the more he felt that he should be the sole breadwinner in the family, the less he shared in the performance of family tasks.

8. Attitudes towards sex roles were found to be quite influential in understanding the division of labor for the couples in this study. Not suprisingly, women who hold traditional attitudes tend to show higher levels of performance of family labor than their male counterpart do. The one context in which this finding was most suprising was in dual-working couples, where it appeared that these women were contributing to their role-overload with their own attitude. However, the degree to which an unequal distribution of family work has fostered this attitude, and the extent to which unequal practices in the work force support the situation even further should not be overlooked.

9. If marital harmony is related to marital satisfaction than an unequal division of family labor may be partially responsible for the dissatisfaction women have experienced. The less a women could share family work with her partner, the more dissatisfaction she reported experiencing. Males need to acknowledge this condition and respond with more action and less "lip-service" towards equality.

G. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

I believe that the findings of this study have something to offer to other reseachers and theorists interested in exploring and understanding the dynamics of family labor.

First, I believe that this study illustrates the value of gathering information about family events from both partners involved. The findings in this study lend some support to the notion that men and women have similar and different perceptions about their relationship and how events occur in their relationships. Researchers may want to examine the logical levels associated with partner's disagreements in order to understand the nature

of these differences more.

In order to implement this procedure, some attention will need to be paid to refining instruments which can accomplish this, and to determine the reliability of the data gathered. Although the methods used in this study were adequate they could be refined.

Second, I believe that the findings in this study suggest that more attention needs to be directed towards understanding the influence which structural and economic factors have upon role-sharing practices in dual-worker, and dual-career couples. Statistics Canada shows that by 1981 approximately 51% of all married women had entered the paid labor force in some capacity, and, further, that 46% had children still living at home. Thus, a majority of intact married couples in Canada now fall into either of those two categories. Unfortunately, these structural barriers, such as the relative inflexibility of job hours and demands, for most workers coupled with the unequal job opportunities and remuneration for women do not appear to be altering naturally nor do they appear to be keeping pace with the rapid rise in female employment and the demands and strains which two earner couples face. Perhaps, if more attention is focused upon the importance these factors have upon family life then some assistance towards removing these barriers will occur.

Finally this study may be of some value in the field of marital and family therapy. Therapists who work with dual-career couples have emphasized the fact that the distribution of family work is one of the most frequent problems which these couples bring to therapy (Rice, 1979; Yogev and Brett, 1985). Satisfaction with the marriage is influenced by the way responsibilities are divided. My study might offer some guidance to both client and therapist on factors which can influence the distribution of labor. The study may be of some assistance to both parties in examining the pattern of sharing responsibilities which is being practiced over instrumental and expressive domains. Further, the findings on the extent of sharing may clarify (to a limited degree) some normative standards about the the structure and practice of role-sharing.

H. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. The structure of 'role-sharing' for couples requires further study. Can the dimensions identified in this study be replicable in similar samples, and second, can the overall structure be replicable for childless couples and older couples? Further use of the 'role-sharing' questionnaire designed for this study by other reseachers may lead to some useful refinements of the instrument.

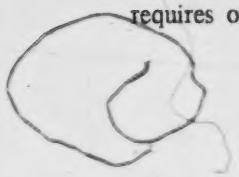
2. Income difference was a potent predictor of how couples shared responsibilities for roles in their relationship, however, certain variables could have confounded this relationship and they need to be identified in future studies on this relationship. Job hours and career salience and income level are such variables which researchers might want to control for in future. For instance, in dual-career couples where both partners devote the same amount of time to paid work, how does income difference influence their pattern of sharing? Does the relationship of income difference to role-sharing hold for high income and low income families?

3. Replicating the study but with an older population (i.e., over 45 years) would be very useful, in exploring whether the same factors influence the division of labor in couples. This would certainly add to our limited knowledge of family dynamics in middle-aged and older couples.

4. It would be useful to conduct a longitudinal study with couples identifying the important antecedent variables at the time of marriage or just shortly following this in order to gain a clearer understanding of the impact of these factors on the sharing of family roles.

6. The combination of antecedent variables in this study varied in their ability to explain variability in sharing patterns couples established in their relationships. The explanatory power ranged from nil in the handyman and decision-making roles, to 46% in the domestic/childcare role. For a number of family roles the amount of variance which was explained by the antecedents in this study was less then 10%. Future studies may want

to address the division of labor in the expressive domain in order to generate more of an understanding of the factors which impact the sharing patterns in these roles. As well, our ability to explain in the only male oriented family role, the handyman role, was not enhanced by the study. Nyquist *et al.* (1985) also was unable to explain any variation in couples performance in this role, and Bird *et al.* (1984) were successful in accounting for only 4% of the sharing in this role. Future research studies might want to focus more carefully on factors which influence the division of labor in this role, even though it requires only a minor time commitment on the part of both partners.



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APPENDIX 1

July 10, 1984

Dear Participant;

This survey research is concerned with the way couples share responsibilities in their relationship. The enclosed instruments are designed to gather information on attitudes and behaviors towards occupational and family roles. The results of this study will contribute to our understanding of the nature of role sharing in relationships.

I am a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Alberta. The study is being supervised by Dr. Robert Frender a professor in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta.

We are particularly interested in gathering responses from couples in which one partner is between the ages of twenty and forty-five, and who have at least one child living at home.

The research requires that both you and your partner be willing to complete the survey on your own. Since some of the questions deal with personal or private matters, and we need you to be frank with your answers, we are asking you to not put your names on the surveys. This is to preserve your anonymity.

Previous participants reported that approximately one to one and a half hours was required to complete the entire survey. Participants also reported that the experience was of value to them as it provided them with new and useful insights into their relationship.

We would appreciate you and your partner completing and returning the enclosed instruments prior to September 15, 1984.

Please read the attached instruction sheet before proceeding to the survey questions.

If you have any questions please contact myself at 434-8944. Thank you for your co-operation in this project.

Sincerely,

David B. Lingley M.Ed.

David B. Lingley, M.Ed.

Edmonton and area couples are invited to participate in a survey on the way couples who are either married or living together share family and occupational responsibilities. The research is being conducted by a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Alberta. Information is being sought from couples in which one member is between the ages of twenty (20) and fourty-five (45), and who have at least one (1) child living at home. Surveys will be mailed directly to couples who volunteer. A summary of the results of the study will also be made available to participants once the research has been completed. If you might be interested in participating in this study and would like more information please contact David Lingley at 434-8944 Monday, Wednesday, or Friday between 9 a.m. and 12 noon. Or you can write to:

David Lingley
c/o Department of Educational Psychology
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2G5

Public Service Announcements

I would appreciate it if you would place the following among your public service announcements from October 1 - 8, 1984.

Edmonton and area couples are invited to participate in a survey on the way couples who are either married or living together share family and occupational responsibilities. The research is being conducted by a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Alberta. Information is being sought from couples in which one member is between the ages of twenty (20) and fourty-five (45), and who have at least one (1) child living at home. Surveys will be mailed directly to couples who volunteer. A summary of the results of the study will also be made available to participants once the research has been completed. If you might be interested in participating in this study and would like more information please contact David Lingley at 434-8944 Monday, Wednesday, or Friday between 9 a.m. and 12 noon. Or you can write to:

David Lingley
c/o Department of Educational Psychology
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2G5

Summary Request Form

Please send a brief summary of the results of your role sharing study to us when the study has been completed.

Name_____

Address_____

City_____

Postal Code_____

Please use the small white envelope provided to return this request form. Do not return this form with your survey answers. These envelopes are addressed to Dr. R. Frender rather than myself in order to ensure your anonymity.

Thank you

David B. Lingley M.ed

David B. Lingley, M.Ed.

Interview Request Form

For: Role Sharing Study

We would be interested in being interviewed regarding the role sharing arrangement we practice in our relationship.

We understand that because these interviews will be conducted after the initial study has been completed they will probably not begin until September, 1985.

When you are ready to conduct the interviews you may contact us at the following phone numbers:

Home _____ Busness_____

or you may contact us by mail at the following address:

Name_____

Address_____

City_____

Postal Code_____

Please use the small envelope to return this request form.

Signed_____

Date_____

Thank you

David B Lingley M Ed.

David B. Lingley, M.Ed.

PART 1

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS PART BEFORE PROCEEDING TO PART 2.

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF THE PRESENT.

1. WHAT IS YOUR SEX?(Circle one)

   1.Male

   2.Female

2. WHAT IS YOUR AGE? _____YEARS

3. WHAT IS YOUR PARTNER'S AGE?_____YEARS

4. WHAT IS YOUR LIVING ARRANGEMENT? (Circle one)

   1. Married

   2. Co-habitating

5. HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU AND YOUR PARTNER BEEN LIVING TOGETHER? _____

6. HAVE YOU EVER BEEN MARRIED BEFORE?(Circle one)

   1.YES

   2.NO(If no,move to question 8.)

7. IF YES, HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU BEEN MARRIED BEFORE?_____

8. HAVE YOU EVER LIVED WITH ANYONE FOR LONGER
   THAN ONE MONTH IN AN INTIMATE RELATIONSHIP BEFORE THIS ONE?(Circle one)

   1.YES

   2.NO(If no,move on to question 10)

9. IF YES, HOW MANY RELATIONSHIPS OF THIS TYPE HAVE YOU BEEN IN BEFORE?_____

10. HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE LIVING IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD? _____

11. WHAT AGES ARE THEY? (Circle one)

1. Younger than six.
2. Between six and twelve.
3. Older than twelve.
4. Both 1. and 2.
5. Both 1. and 3.
6. Both 2. and 3.
7. All of 1., 2., and 3.

12. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOU HAVE ACHIEVED? (Circle appropriate number)

1 - less than high school diploma
2 - high school diploma
3 - some university/college
4 - technical degree (NAIT, SAIT, etc.)
5 - Bachelor's degree (BA, BS, etc.)
6 - some graduate school
7 - Master's degree
8 - PhD, MD, LLB, etc.

13. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOUR PARTNER HAS ACHIEVED?(Circle appropriate number)

1 - less than high school diploma
2 - high school diploma
3 - some university/college
4 - technical degree (NAIT, SAIT, etc.)
5 - Bachelor's degree (BA, BS, etc.)
6 - some graduate school
7 - Master's degree
8 - PhD, MD, LLB, etc.

14. WHAT IS YOUR OCCUPATIONAL STATUS?(Circle appropriate number)

1 - Unemployed
2 - Employed part-time (less than 35 hours per week)
3 - Employed full-time (over 35 hours per week)
4 - Attending school full-time
5 - Retired
6 - Disabled
7 - At home by choice
8 - Other (Please specify) _____

15. WHAT IS YOUR PARTNER'S OCCUPATIONAL STATUS?(Circle appropriate number)

1 - Unemployed
2 - Employed part-time (less than 35 hours per week)
3 - Employed full-time (over 35 hours per week)
4 - Attending school full-time
5 - Retired
6 - Disabled
7 - At home by choice
8 - Other (Please specify) _____

PART 2

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS PART BEFORE PROCEEDING TO PART 3.

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF HOW YOU HAVE BEHAVED, ON THE AVERAGE, OVER THE LAST SIX MONTHS.

1. DO YOU REGULARLY USE HIRED HELP TO PERFORM ANY HOUSEWORK? (Circle one)

1.YES 2.NO

2. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF ALL HOUSEWORK DONE IN YOUR HOME DO YOU ESTIMATE YOU DO?_____%

3. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF ALL HOUSEWORK DONE IN YOUR HOME DO YOU ESTIMATE YOUR PARTNER DOES? _____%

4. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF ALL HOUSEWORK DONE IN YOUR HOME DO YOU ESTIMATE IS DONE BY HIRED HELP?_____%

5. HOW MANY HOURS PER DAY DO YOU ESTIMATE YOU SPEND ON HOUSEWORK ?_____

6. HOW MANY HOURS PER DAY DO YOU ESTIMATE YOUR PARTNER SPENDS ON HOUSEWORK?_____

7. HOW MANY HOURS PER DAY DO YOU ESTIMATE THE HIRED HELP SPENDS ON HOUSEWORK? _____

8. ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH THE WAY YOU AND YOUR PARTNER SHARE HOUSEWORK RESPONSIBILITIES? (Circle appropriate number)

1 - very satisfied
2 - satisfied
3 - dissatisfied
4 - very dissatisfied

9. COULD YOU BRIEFLY EXPLAIN WHY YOU FEEL THE WAY YOU DO REGARDING YOUR ANSWER TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTION.

10. DO YOU REGULARLY USE HIRED HELP TO PERFORM ANY CHILD CARE TASKS?(day care, baby sitters, nannies, etc) (Circle one)

1.YES 2.NO

11. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF ALL CHILD CARE DONE IN YOUR HOUSE DO YOU ESTIMATE YOU DO? _____%

12. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF ALL CHILD CARE DONE IN YOUR HOUSE DO YOU ESTIMATE YOUR PARTNER DOES? _____%

13. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF ALL CHILD CARE DONE IN YOUR HOUSE DO YOU ESTIMATE THE HIRED HELP DOES? _____%

14. HOW MANY HOURS PER DAY DO YOU ESTIMATE YOU SPEND ON CHILD CARE TASKS?_____

15. HOW MANY HOURS PER DAY DO YOU ESTIMATE YOUR PARTNER SPENDS ON CHILD CARE TASKS?_____

16. HOW MANY HOURS PER DAY DO YOU ESTIMATE THE HIRED HELP SPENDS ON CHILD CARE TASKS?_____

17. ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH THE WAY YOU AND YOUR PARTNER SHARE CHILD CARE RESPONSIBILITIES? (Circle appropriate number)

1 - very satisfied
2 - satisfied
3 - dissatisfied
4 - very dissatisfied

18. COULD YOU BRIEFLY EXPLAIN WHY YOU FEEL THE WAY YOU DO REGARDING YOUR ANSWER TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTION.

FOR QUESTIONS 19 THROUGH 88, CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH CORRESPONDS TO YOUR ANSWER.

A. CERTAIN TASKS NEED TO BE PERFORMED SO THAT YOUR HOUSEHOLD CAN RUN SMOOTHLY. I WOULD LIKE TO KNOW WHO DOES EACH OF THE FOLLOWING DOMESTIC AND CHILD CARE TASKS MORE OFTEN, YOU OR YOUR PARTNER?(USE THE LEFT-HAND COLUMN FOR THESE ANSWERS). I WOULD ALSO LIKE TO KNO WHO TAKES RESPONSIBILITY FOR INITIATING WHEN THESE TASKS ARE TO BE PERFORMED.(USE THE RIGHT-HAND COLUMN FOR THESE ANSWERS).

	WHO DOES THIS TASK MORE OFTEN?										WHO INITIATES THIS?									
	We never do this task	I do it all the time				We do this equally often				He/She does it all the time	I always initiate this				We initiate this equally				He/She always initiates this	
19.COOK BREAKFAST	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
20.COOK EVENING MEAL	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
21.VACUUM	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
22.IRON CLOTHES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
23.KEEP CLOTHES IN REPAIR	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
24.LAUNDRY	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
25.CLEAN BATHROOMS	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
26.SHOP FOR GROCERIES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
27.WASH DISHES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
28.DUST	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	We never do this task	I do it all the time				We do this equally often				He/She does it all the time		I always initiate this				We initiate this equally				He/She always initiates this
29. REPAIR THINGS AROUND THE HOUSE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30. CARE FOR PETS	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31. TAKE OUT GARBAGE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32. DO YARDWORK	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33. SHOVEL SNOW	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34. WASH CAR	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
35. PAY BILLS	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
36. DRIVE THE CAR WHEN WE GO OUT TOGETHER	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
37. GET CHILDREN DRESSED IN THE MORNING	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
38. DRIVE CHILDREN TO DAYCARE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	We never do this task	I do it all the time				We do this equally often				He/She does it all the time	I always initiate this				We initiate this equally				He/She always initiates this
39. PICK CHILDREN UP FROM DAYCARE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
40. DRIVE CHILDREN TO ACTIVITIES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
41. PICK CHILDREN UP FROM ACTIVITIES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
42. BATH CHILDREN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
43. DIAPER AND CHANGE CHILDREN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
44. ASSIST CHILDREN WITH HOMEWORK	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
45. PLAY WITH CHILDREN IN THE EVENING	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
46. STAY AT HOME WITH A SICK CHILD	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
47. DISCIPLINE CHILDREN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	We never do this task	I do it all the time				We do this equally often				He/She does it all the time	I always initiate this				We initiate this equally				He/She always initiates this
48. PICK UP AFTER CHILDREN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
49. WRITE LETTERS TO MY RELATIVES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
50. WRITE LETTERS TO MY PARTNER'S RELATIVES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
51. BUY GIFTS FOR MY RELATIVES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
52. BUY GIFTS FOR MY PARTNER'S RELATIVES	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
53. PHONE MY RELATIVES TO MAINTAIN CONTACT	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
54. PHONE MY PARTNER'S RELATIVES TO MAINTAIN CONTACT	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

PLEASE TURN PAGE AND CONTINUE

B. DECISION-MAKING OCCURS IN ALL RELATIONSHIPS. PLEASE INDICATE WHO HAS MORE INFLUENCE IN MAKING EACH OF THE FOLLOWING DECISIONS--YOU OR YOUR PARTNER (USE THE LEFT-HAND COLUMN FOR THESE ANSWERS). THEN I WOULD LIKE TO KNOW HOW MUCH VALUE YOU PLACE ON EACH OF THE DECISIONS -- DO YOU SEE IT AS A MAJOR OR MINOR DECISION (USE THE RIGHT-HAND COLUMN FOR THESE ANSWERS).

	WHO HAS MORE INFLUENCE?										IS THIS A MAJOR OR MINOR DECISION?									
	We never make this decision	I have all the influence				We have equal influence				He/She has all the influence	Very minor									Very major
55. HOW TO DECORATE THE HOUSE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
56. WHICH CAR TO BUY	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
57. WHERE TO GO ON VACATION	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
58. HOW MUCH MONEY TO SPEND ON FOOD	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
59. HOW TO DISCIPLINE CHILDREN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
60. HOW MUCH MONEY TO SPEND ON ENTERTAINMENT	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
61. WHAT CHORES CHILDREN SHOULD DO	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	We never make this decision	I have all the influence				We have equal influence				He/She has all the influence	Very minor								Very major
62. HOW TO INVEST MONEY	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
63. WHAT CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS TO MAKE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
64. WHAT INSURANCE TO PURCHASE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
65. WHICH FRIENDS TO ENTERTAIN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
66. WHERE TO LIVE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

PLEASE TURN PAGE AND CONTINUE

C. THE COMMUNICATION OF THOUGHTS AND FEELINGS, AND THE DEMONSTRATION OF AFFECTION AND CARING, ARE INVOLVED IN ALL RELATIONSHIPS. I WOULD LIKE TO KNOW WHO DOES EACH OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS MORE OFTEN IN YOUR RELATIONSHIP - YOU OR YOUR PARTNER. (USE THE LEFT-HAND COLUMN FOR THESE ANSWERS). THEN I WOULD LIKE TO KNOW WHETHER YOU WOULD LIKE YOUR PARTNER TO DO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS MORE OFTEN OR LESS OFTEN THAN NOW, THAT IS ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH HOW OFTEN YOUR PARTNER DOES EACH OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS? (USE THE RIGHT-HAND COLUMN FOR THESE ANSWERS).

	WHO DOES THIS MORE OFTEN?									HOW SATISFIED ARE YOU?									
	We never do this	I do this much more than my partner			We do this equally often			He/She does this much more than I		I would like my partner to do this less often			I am satisfied now				I would like my partner to do this more often		
67. INITIATE DISCUSSION OF PROBLEMS WITH THE RELATIONSHIP	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
68. OFFER THE OTHER PERSONAL SUPPORT	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
69. DEMONSTRATE AFFECTION SPONTANEOUSLY	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
70. KEEP THOUGHTS/ FEELINGS TO ONESELF	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
71. OFFER ASSISTANCE TO PARTNER IN CLARIFYING A PROBLEM OR A CONCERN	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	We never do this	I do this much more than my partner			We do this equally often			He/She does this much more than I			I would like my partner to do this less often			I am satisfied now			I would like my partner to do this more often		
72. SHOW CONCERN FOR HOW THE OTHER IS FEELING	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
73. CHANGE THEIR POINT OF VIEW WHEN WE DISAGREE ON AN ISSUE WHICH AFFECTS THE RELATIONSHIP	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
74. SHOW AN INTEREST IN LISTENING TO HOW THE OTHER'S DAY HAS GONE	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
75. CHANGE THEIR BEHAVIOUR IN ORDER TO RESOLVE A CONFLICT OCCURRING WITHIN THE RELATIONSHIP	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
76. LET THE OTHER KNOW WHEN THEY WOULD LIKE TO HAVE SEX	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	We never do this	I do this much more than my partner				We do this equally often				He/She does this much more than I	I would like my partner to do this less often				I am satisfied now				I would like my partner to do this more often			
77. INITIATE SEX	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
78. DECIDE UPON THE VARIETY OF SEXUAL EXPERIENCES WE WILL HAVE TOGETHER	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
79. REFUSE TO HAVE SEX	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
80. DECIDE UPON THE METHOD OF BIRTH CONTROL	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
81. BRING UP CONCERNS ABOUT PARTNER'S SEXUAL BEHAVIOR	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
82. DECIDE UPON THE SIZE OF OUR FAMILY	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			

	We never do this	I do this much more than my partner				We do this equally often			He/She does this much more than I		I would like my partner to do this less often							I am satisfied now	I would like my partner to do this more often	
83.DETERMINE THE FREQUENCY OF OUR SEXUAL CONTACT	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
84.EXPRESS SATISFACTION WITH CURRENT SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
85.EXPRESS DISSATISFACTION WITH CURRENT SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
86.LET THE OTHER KNOW WHAT PLEASES THEM SEXUALLY	x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

PART 3

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS PART BEFORE PROCEEDING TO PART 4.

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF HOW YOU HAVE BEHAVED, ON THE AVERAGE, OVER THE LAST SIX MONTHS.

III. I WOULD LIKE TO GATHER SOME INFORMATION ON HOW THE FAMILY'S FINANCIAL MATTERS ARE MANAGED. PLEASE REMEMBER THAT YOUR ANSWERS ARE ANONYMOUS.

1.DO YOU HAVE A SOURCE OF INCOME SEPARATE FROM YOUR PARTNER'S?

1.YES
2.NO

2.HOW DO YOU AND YOUR PARTNER MANAGE YOUR EXPENSES?

1.WE EACH HAVE SEPARATE ACCOUNTS AND NO JOINT ACCOUNTS.
2.WE EACH HAVE SEPARATE ACCOUNTS AND A JOINT ACCOUNT.
3.WE HAVE ONLY A JOINT ACCOUNT.
4.WE HAVE ANOTHER SYSTEM.(Please explain)

WHOSE INCOME PAYS FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING?

	I pay for all of this			We each pay for half of this item				He/She pays for all of this	We do not have this as an expense
3.RENT/ MORTGAGE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
4.CHILD CARE EXPENSES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
5.INVEST-MENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
6.HOUSE CLEANING HELP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
7.GROCERIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
8.MY CLOTHES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x

	I pay for all of this				We each pay for half of this item				He/She pays for all of this	We do not have this as an expense
9. PARTNER'S CLOTHES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
10. CAR MAINTENANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
11. HOUSE INSURANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
12. ENTER-TAINMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
13. UTILITIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
14. MY PERSONAL SPENDING MONEY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x
15. MY PARTNER'S PERSONAL SPENDING MONEY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	x

16. WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE IN EARNED INCOME, ON THE AVERAGE PER MONTH, BETWEEN YOU AND YOUR PARTNER? (Please fill in amount)

Man earns $_____ more than partner each month.

Woman earns $_____ more than partner each month.

We earn the same amount each month ___.

PART 4

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS PART BEFORE PROCEEDING TO PART 5.

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF THE PRESENT.

IV. I WOULD LIKE TO GATHER SOME INFORMATION ABOUT THE ATTITUDES YOU AND YOUR PARTNER HOLD TOWARDS HAVING A CAREER. PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH BEST REPRESENTS HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT THE STATEMENT.

1.BOTH PARTNERS SHOULD FEEL EQUALLY OBLIGATED TO PROVIDE ECONOMIC SUPPORT FOR THE FAMILY

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

2.BOTH PARTNERS SHOULD FEEL EQUALLY OBLIGATED TO HAVE A PAYING JOB

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

3.BOTH PARTNER'S CAREERS SHOULD BE TREATED WITH EQUAL IMPORTANCE WHEN A CONFLICT ARISES BETWEEN HOME AND CAREER

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

4.BOTH PARTNERS HAVE AN EQUAL RIGHT TO DEVELOP AND PURSUE A CAREER

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

BLANK PAGE INSERTED

PART 5

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS PART BEFORE PROCEEDING TO PART 6.

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF THE PRESENT.

V.THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE DESIGNED TO MEASURE THE IMPORTANCE OF WORK AND CAREER IN A PERSON'S LIFE. FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS, PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH BEST REPRESENTS HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT THE STATEMENT.

1.IT IS MORE IMPORTANT TO HAVE SOME LEISURE TIME AFTER WORK THAN TO HAVE A JOB IN YOUR CHOSEN FIELD, BE DEVOTED TO IT, AND BE A SUCCESS AT IT.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

2.I ENJOY THINKING ABOUT AND MAKING PLANS FOR MY FUTURE CAREER.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

3.IT IS DIFFICULT TO FIND SATISFACTION IN LIFE UNLESS YOU ENJOY YOUR JOB.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

4.I WOULD CONSIDER MYSELF EXTREMELY "CAREER MINDED."

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

5.I INTEND TO PURSUE THE JOB OF MY CHOICE, EVEN IF IT ALLOWS ONLY VERY LITTLE OPPORTUNITY TO ENJOY FRIENDS.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

6.THE WHOLE IDEA OF WORKING AND HOLDING A JOB IS KIND OF DISTASTEFUL TO ME.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.UNCERTAIN
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

PART 6

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF THE PRESENT.

VI. THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE INTENDED TO MEASURE A PERSON'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS SEX ROLES IN OUR SOCIETY. FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS, PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH BEST REFLECTS YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT THE STATEMENT.

1. WHOEVER IS THE BETTER WAGE-EARNER, WIFE OR HUSBAND, SHOULD BE THE BREADWINNER.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

2. MEN ARE MORE CAPABLE OF ASSUMING LEADERSHIP THAN WOMEN.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

3. MEN'S CLUBS AND LODGES SHOULD BE REQUIRED TO ADMIT WOMEN.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

4. A HUSBAND WHO IS THE BREADWINNER IN THE FAMILY SHOULD MAKE ALL THE IMPORTANT DECISIONS.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

5. I WOULD FEEL UNCOMFORTABLE IF MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR AT WORK WAS A WOMAN.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

6.WOMEN GENERALLY PREFER LIGHT CONVERSATIONS OVER RATIONAL DISCUSSIONS.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

7.IT IS POSSIBLE FOR WOMEN TO SATISFY THEIR NEEDS FOR ACHIEVEMENT THROUGH THEIR HUSBANDS.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

8.FEMALES SHOULD GO AHEAD AND PAMPER MALES, "TELL THEM HOW GREAT THEY ARE", BECAUSE THAT'S A USEFUL WAY TO GET WHAT THEY WANT

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

9.THE WAY MEN AND WOMEN BEHAVE IS MORE A RESULT OF THEIR GENETIC MAKE-UP THAN OF THE WAY THEY WERE BROUGHT UP.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

10.WOMEN WITH CHILDREN IN GRAMMAR SCHOOL SHOULD STAY AT HOME, IF AT ALL POSSIBLE, RATHER THAN WORK.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

11.TO A GREAT EXTENT, WOMEN ARE LESS ABLE TO MAKE A CAREER COMMITMENT THAN MEN.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

12.WOMEN CAN ATTAIN TRUE EQUALITY IN THIS COUNTRY ONLY THROUGH A REALLY DRASTIC CHANGE IN THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

13.MEN SHOULD STOP APPRAISING WOMEN SOLELY ON THE BASIS OF APPEARENCE AND SEX APPEAL.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

14.EITHER CONSCIOUSLY OR UNCONSCIOUSLY MOST WOMAN WOULD LIKE TO BE LIKE MEN.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

15.MEN SHOULD HAVE MORE FREEDOM TO DO SUCH THINGS AS COOK AND CARE FOR CHILDREN, IF THEY SO DESIRE.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

16.A MAN'S SELF-ESTEEM IS SEVERELY INJURED IF HIS WIFE MAKES MORE MONEY THAN HE DOES.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

17.WOMEN SHOULD HAVE EQUAL JOB OPPORTUNITIES WITH MEN.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

18.UNLIKE RACE RIOTS, THE "BATTLE OF THE SEXES" WILL NEVER INVOLVE VIOLENCE ON ANY LARGE SCALE.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

19.WOMEN SHOULD GET EQUAL PAY WITH MEN FOR DOING THE SAME JOB.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

20.MEN NEED LIBERATION AS MUCH AS WOMEN DO.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

21.CAREER WOMEN GENERALLY ARE NEUROTIC.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

22.THERE IS CONSIDERABLE EVIDENCE THAT MEN, IN GENERAL, ARE A "SUPERIOR SPECIES" TO WOMEN.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

23.FEMALES SHOULD BE ENCOURAGED TO PLAN FOR A CAREER, NOT JUST A JOB.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

24.MEN SHOULD TAKE THE SAME AMOUNT OF RESPONSIBILITY AS WOMEN IN CARING FOR HOME AND CHILDREN.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

25.SINCE AS WITH ANIMALS, MEN HAVE A NATURAL URGE TO DOMINATE AND LEAD, WOMEN WHO CHALLENGE THIS ACTUALLY THREATEN THE WELFARE OF SOCIETY.

1.STRONGLY DISAGREE
2.DISAGREE
3.NO OPINION
4.AGREE
5.STRONGLY AGREE

26. I WOULD VOTE FOR A WOMAN FOR PRIME MINISTER OF CANADA.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

27. WOMEN ARE LESS CAPABLE OF MAKING IMPORTANT DECISIONS THAN MEN ARE.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

28. THERE SHOULD BE LOW-COST, HIGH-QUALITY, CHILD CARE CENTERS FOR WORKING WOMEN.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

29. WOMEN REALLY LIKE BEING DEPENDENT ON MEN.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

30. WOMEN WITH PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN SHOULD NOT WORK -- IF AT ALL POSSIBLE.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

31. WOMEN ARE AS CAPABLE AS MEN OF ENJOYING A FULL SEX LIFE.

1. STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. DISAGREE
3. NO OPINION
4. AGREE
5. STRONGLY AGREE

PART 7

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS PART BEFORE RETURNING YOUR SURVEYS.

WHEN RESPONDING TO THIS PART, PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF THE PRESENT.

VII. I WOULD LIKE TO KNOW HOW YOU WOULD DESCRIBE YOURSELF USING THE SCALE APPEARING HERE. FOR EACH ITEM CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT YOU FEEL DESCRIBES YOU BEST.

	Never True	Rarely True	Seldom True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True	Always True
1. SELF-RELIANT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. YIELDING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. HELPFUL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. DEFENDS OWN BELIEFS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. CHEERFUL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. MOODY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. INDEPENDENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. SHY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. CONSCIENTIOUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ATHLETIC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. AFFECTIONATE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. THEATRICAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Never True	Rarely True	Seldom True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True	Always True
13. ASSERTIVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. FLATTERABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. HAPPY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. STRONG PERSONALITY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. LOYAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. UNPREDICTABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. FORCEFUL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. FEMININE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. RELIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. ANALYTICAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. SYMPATHETIC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. JEALOUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Never True	Rarely True	Seldom True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True	Always True
25. HAS LEADERSHIP ABILITIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. SENSITIVE TO NEEDS OF OTHERS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. TRUTHFUL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. WILLING TO TAKE RISKS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. UNDERSTANDING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. SECRETIVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. MAKES DECISIONS EASILY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. COMPASSIONATE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. SINCERE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. SELF-SUFFICIENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. EAGER TO SOOTH HURT FEELINGS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. CONCEITED	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Never True	Rarely True	Seldom True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True	Always True
37.DOMINANT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.SOFT-SPOKEN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.LIKEABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.MASCULINE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.WARM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.SOLEMN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.WILLING TO TAKE A STAND	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.TENDER	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.FRIENDLY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.AGGRESIVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.GULLIBLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.INEFFICIENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Never True	Rarely True	Seldom True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True	Always True
49. ACTS AS LEADER	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. CHILDLIKE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. ADAPTABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. INDIVIDUALISTIC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. DOES NOT USE HARSH LANGUAGE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. UNSYSTEMATIC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. COMPETITIVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. LOVES CHILDREN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. TACTFUL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. AMBITIOUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. GENTLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. CONVENTIONAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY. I HAVE ONE FINAL REQUEST. PLEASE RETURN YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY AND YOUR PARTNER'S TO ME USING THE STAMPED, SELF-ADDRESSED, MANILLA ENVELOPE PROVIDED. THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

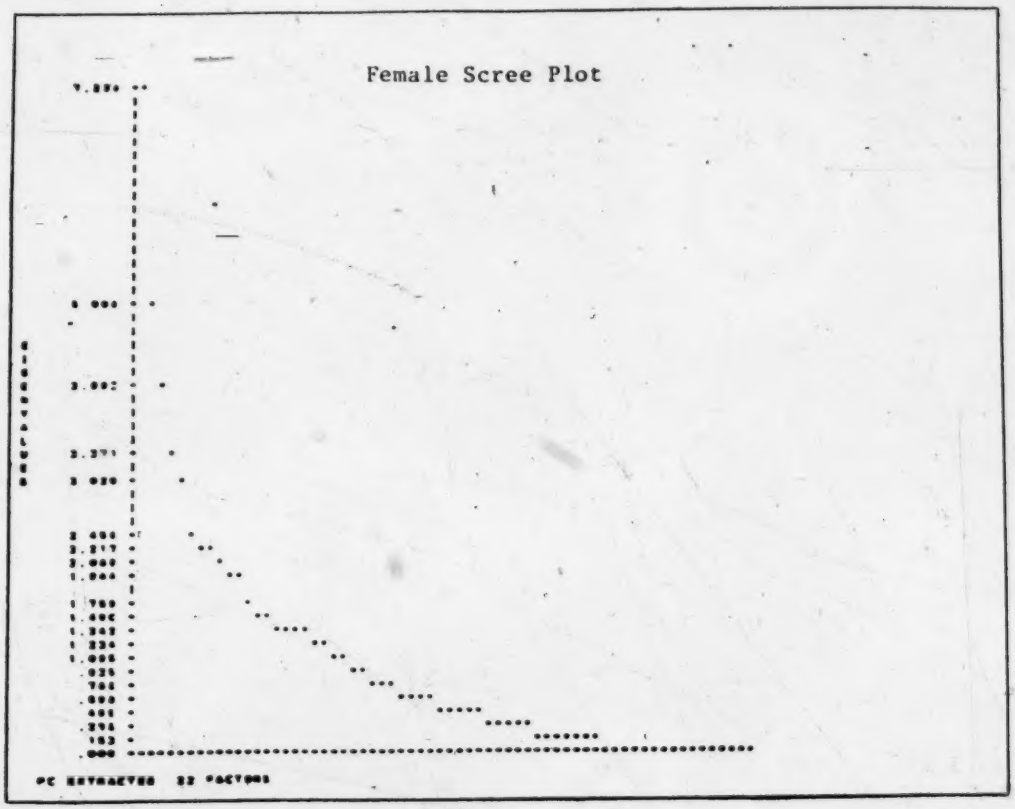
DAVID B. LINGLEY, M. Ed.

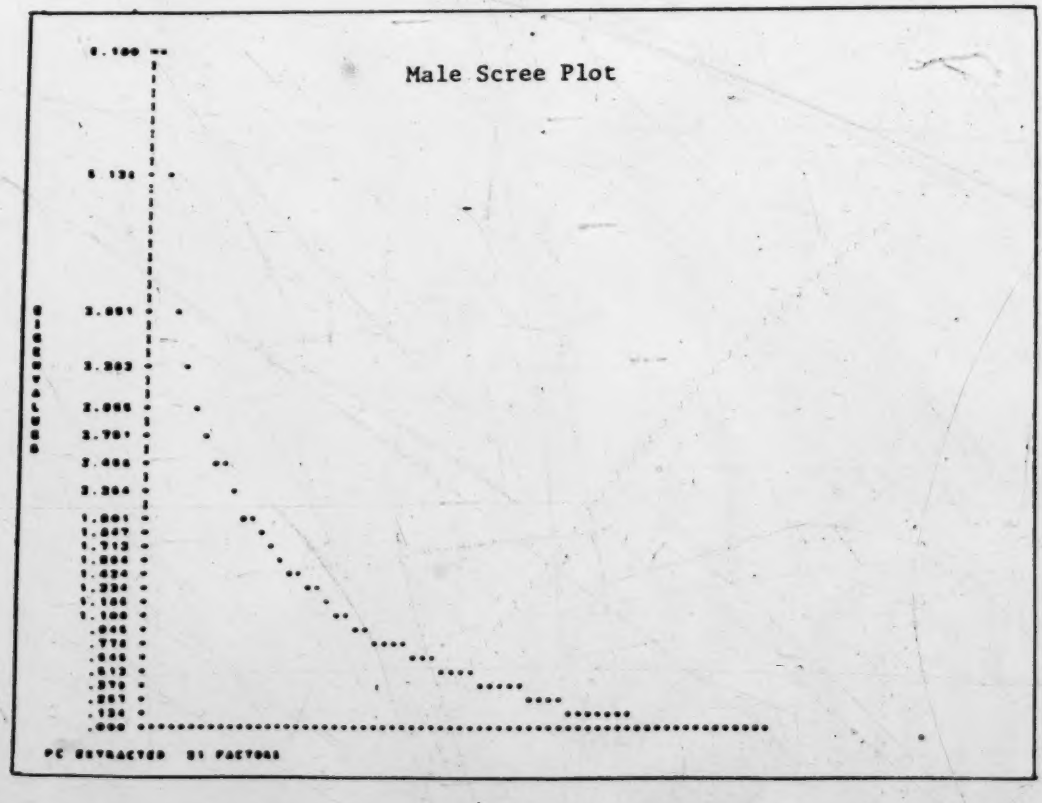
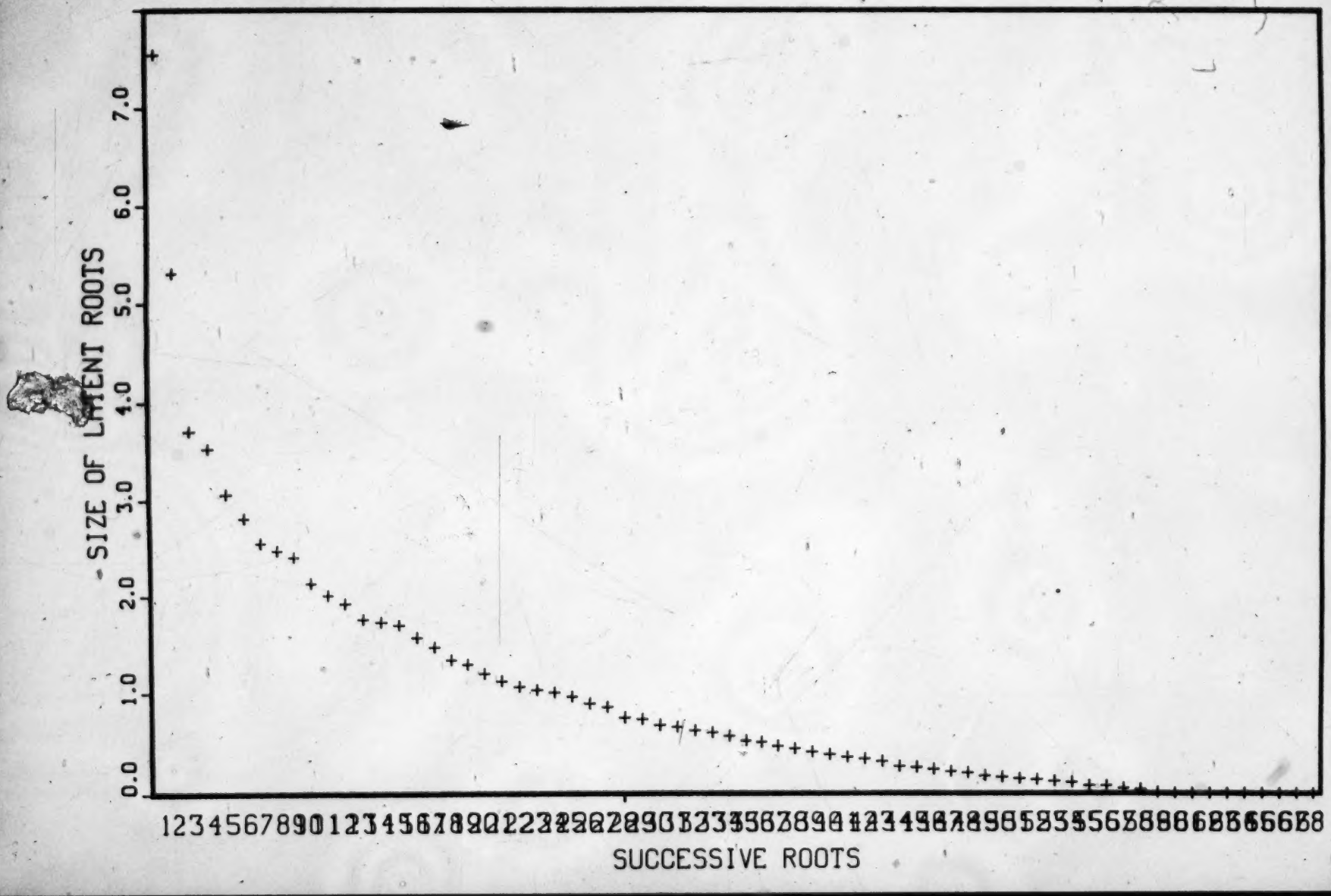
APPENDIX 2

Table 35

Correlations Among Antecedent Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
MBREADQ	(1)	1.00														
MBREADR	(2)	.30														
FBREADM	(3)	.46	.37													
MSEXM	(4)	.23	.51	.33												
FSEXM	(5)	.16	.35	.39	.40											
MCAREERM	(6)	-.07	-.11	-.05	-.10	-.08										
FCAREERM	(7)	-.20	-.15	-.22	-.11	-.32	.21									
MFINC16	(8)	.31	.27	.12	.22	.13	.10	-.16								
FFINC16	(9)	.31	.29	.09	.25	.13	.13	-.11	.95							
MMEdlevl	(10)	.13	.07	-.11	-.19	-.23	.01	.13	-.01	.01						
FFEdlevl	(11)	-.06	-.25	-.31	-.31	-.37	-.03	.33	-.24	-.22	.49					
MMAGE	(12)	-.09	.11	.09	.01	-.03	-.13	.21	.05	.03	.13	.13				
FFAGE	(13)	-.09	.09	.02	-.01	-.05	-.13	.09	-.03	-.07	.13	.14	.86			
MYEARSTO	(14)	-.03	.15	.00	.09	.05	-.25	.12	.07	.03	.06	.01	.77	.78		
FYEARSTO	(15)	-.03	.15	.00	.09	.05	-.25	.12	.07	.03	.06	.02	.78	.79	.99	1.00


Female Scree Plot


Male Scree Plot

EIGEN VALUE PLOT